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ABSTRACT

The reports in this compendium discuss various aspects of federal activities in education. Several authors discuss (1) the role of the Federal Government in the 1970s; (2) the education amendments of 1972; (3) aid grantsmanship; (4) career education; (5) the education of gifted and talented students; (6) the education of the handicapped; (7) environmental education; (8) the prevention of suicides; (9) the use of census data in school administration; and (10) guides for obtaining U.S. Treasury publications, government surplus, and government films. (JF)

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Federal Dollars For Local Schools

Selections from the

FEDERAL AID ★PLANNER

A Guide for School District Administrators

NSPRA a service of the National School Public Relations Association

EA 004 775

FOREWORD

Federal Dollars for Local Schools is a compendium of the most timely and relevant reports first published in the 1972 quarterly issues of the *Federal Aid Planner*. The reports reprinted here were selected because of their continuing value to local school administrators.

The need for facts about federal activities in education is constantly growing. Complex new legislation, guidelines, programs, court decisons and administrative actions tumble forth from Washington so fast, the local school administrator is hard put to keep up. And all indications are that the role of the federal government in education will continue to expand. That federal dollars will make up a third of all educational outlays is fast approaching a state of more than possibility—in fact, a state of near-future reality.

The Federal Aid Planner was launched by the National School Public Relations Association to help local school administrators utilize the resources of the federal government for the benefits of their students and their communities. It is published four times a year—Winter, Spring, Summer and Fall—and is offered on a subscription basis.

The Planner brings its subscribers detailed information about appropriations, guidelines and approved procedures schoolmen must follow in their efforts to apply for and get federal assistance. It keeps the local school administrator informed of who's who in Washington, what's what, where the resources are, where they are likely to appear in the future—and how to go about making the most of these resources. This in-depth coverage in *The Planner* is coordinated with *Update*, a newsletter sent to subscribers between the quarterly issues. And because *The Planner* is prepared in cooperation with the staff which is responsible for *Education U.S.A.*, the independent weekly newsletter on education affairs, the user is assured comprehensive and practical information on federal education programs.

In presenting the selection of reports under the covers of *Federal Dollars for Local Schools*, the publishers hope to indicate the variety and usefulness of material which has already appeared, and will continue to appear, in the *Federal Aid Planner*. The authors of the reports appearing here are Marlene Bloom, Russell Working, Virginia Warren, Anne Lewis and Theodor Schuchat. Graphics were executed by Norman Lubeck. Production staff: Shirley Boes and Cynthia Menand. Executive Editor: Ben Brodinsky; Editorial Director: Roy K. Wilson, executive director of the National School Public Relations Association.

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The Federal Role in the 1970s: Purpose, Power and Money

Who stopped local school districts from paying teachers in 1972 at the scales and the rates agreed upon between the board of education and the local education association or union? Who has pressured many a school district to use its fleet of buses for purposes which may, or may not, have conformed to local needs and local conditions? What centralized power has been urging the remaking of school instructional programs? Who is influencing the amount, quality and price of the food that millions of school children are to have for their lunch? Even these few questions suggest the penetrating power and the influence of the federal government on school districts.

But another set of questions is called for here: Who has been a leader in the educational rescue of children from the inner city, from the disadvantaged family, from among our migrant populations? Who has poured billions of dollars into local school systems to improve the education of the poor and of hitherto neglected minorities? Who has been a consistent financial backer of vocational education for more than half a century? Who is urging innovation and experimentation in teaching and in administration and is putting money on the line to pay for these efforts?

These two sets of questions point to the two types of relationships between local school districts and the U.S. government. Legally independent though they are, and under local control, school systems must often look to the federal government for permission and for directions to carry on their local instructional and administrative programs. And with increasing frequency, school districts are turning to the federal establishment for assistance because the community and the state often cannot provide the resources needed to carry on modern educational activities. In a dramatic appeal, one superintendent recently asked for nationalization of all big city school systems. Federal funding and operation of urban/metropolitan schools are necessary to save them from collapse, Congress has been told on a number of occasions.

Decisions, Laws and Orders

The impact of the federal establishment upon local school districts comes from all three branches of government. There is the U.S. Supreme Court, deciding in recent months on the nature of the racial composition of students in schools and classrooms, urging "pairing, clustering and grouping of schools" to achieve desegregation and setting forth how a school's transportation facilities should be used. In the case of Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg, decided

on April 20, 1971, the Supreme Court justices go deeply into such administrative topics as setting up attendance zones and operating school bus routes.

There is the Congress, forever at work on hundreds of bills affecting every facet of education--from early childhood to postgraduate programs--and enacting into law educational measures which approach the tone and detail of curriculum guides and school administration handbooks.

And there is the executive branch, pouring out a constant stream of regulations, guidelines, interpretations, orders and rulings...and calling many an educational tune because it administers the money Congress has voted. To the 100 programs administered by the U.S. Office of Education (USOE), add another score administered by the U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, National Science Foundation, Office of Economic Opportunity and other agencies.

The outlook is that participation of the federal government in all facets of a public education will keep growing, without an end in sight.

Behind Major Legislation in Congress

Four major issues dominate the thinking of policy planners in Congress:

1. How to speed the desegregation of public elementary and secondary schools.
2. How to provide for the educational, health and welfare needs of preschool children.
3. How to resolve the fiscal crisis facing state and local school systems.
4. How to improve educational research and put it into practice--quickly.

What is the outlook, during the next year or two, for the development of the four big educational issues? Let's take them one by one.

School Desegregation

In 1967, the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights reported that neither state and local governments nor the courts had been able to deal effectively with racial segregation, and that the only remedy would be Congressional action. "Since appropriate remedies may require expenditures of substantial sums of money," the Commission said, "Congress, with its power to appropriate funds and to provide financial assistance, is far better equipped than the courts to provide effective relief."

But how could federal dollars be used to advance school integration? Three years of debate and dialogue in Congress and in the Administration have brought out two points:

1. The federal government must provide local school districts with strong incentives for desegregation--money.

2. All districts in the nation should be eligible for a share of the money, including Southern districts under court order to desegregate or Northern schools implementing voluntary desegregation plans.

But how is desegregation to be impelled and propelled if it is not to be compelled? The variety of legislative proposals in the Senate and House appear to agree that school districts must be encouraged to plan--to set up comprehensive, districtwide efforts for elimination of minority group isolation in which demonstration projects and "model schools" would have a leading role. Demonstration projects might include citywide and countywide art and music festivals, public meetings on school problems, and new instructional practices suitable for systemwide application and for other school districts involved in the desegregation process.

Model schools could be established, each with an integrated faculty, a substantial number of students from relatively affluent backgrounds, a representative mix of minority and nonminority pupils, team teaching, flexible scheduling and nongraded programs.

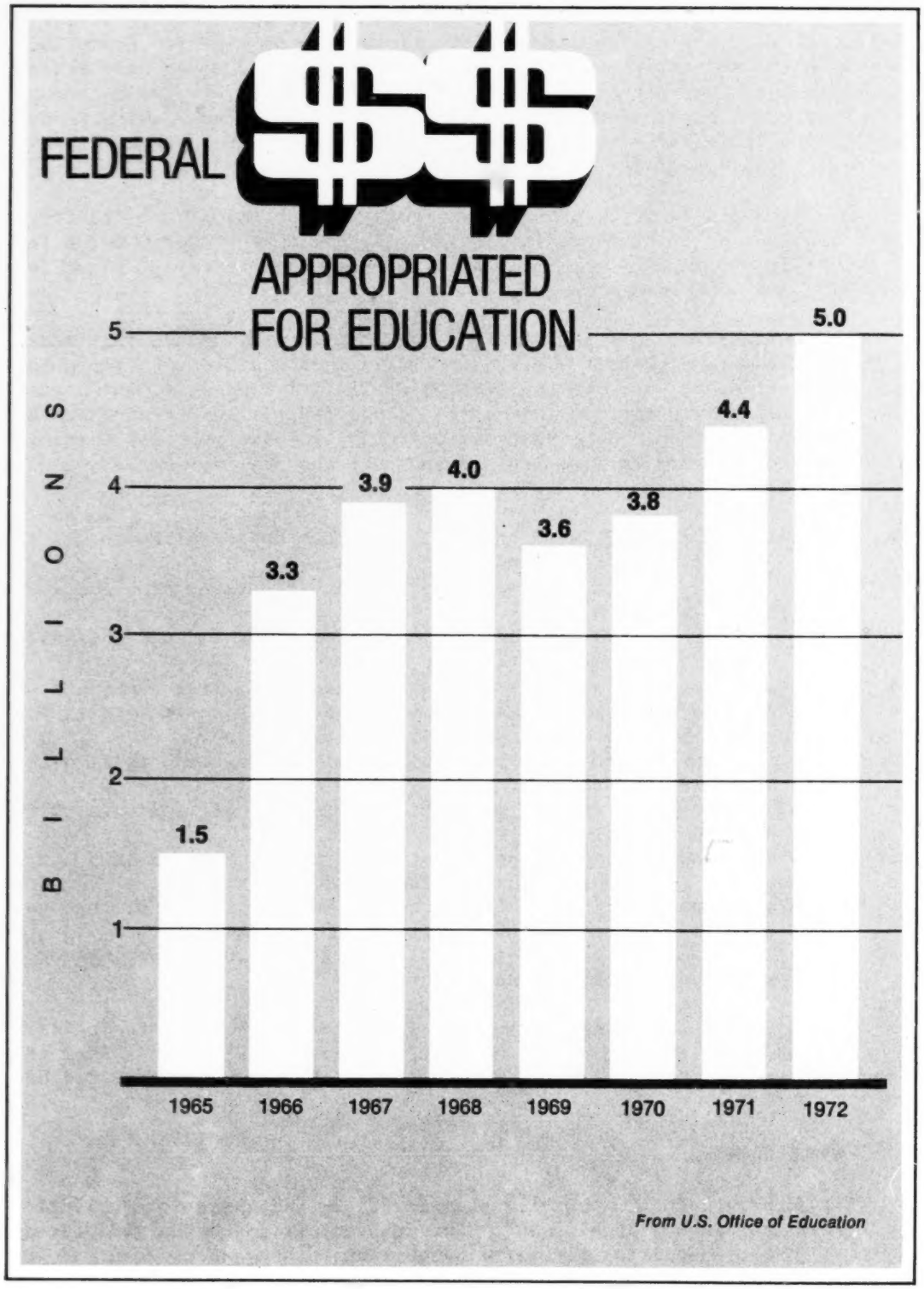
The designers of this legislation have adopted many concepts already tested in the target schools assisted by Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, but the application of Title I techniques and concepts would be broadened to improve the entire school program and to equalize educational opportunities. Some examples of activities and programs that might be encouraged by desegregation legislation over the next few years would almost certainly include:

- Remedial programs providing specialists, books and supplies in all subject areas in which students are deficient.
- Guidance and counseling to deal with student adjustment problems in desegregated schools.
- Diagnostic and referral services for sight, hearing and other physiological or psychological difficulties of students.
- Work-study programs to help students from needy families remain in school.
- Additional teachers and teacher aides to reduce class size and free teachers to provide more individualized instruction.
- Inservice programs for teachers of bilingual children and those with speech or dialect problems.
- Expansion of extracurricular activities to include all students, with parent-teacher involvement.
- Visits to homes by school representatives. Visits to schools by parents.
- Increased use of school facilities for special services.
- Seminars and workshops to identify the problems of teachers, parents and students involved in the desegregation process.
- Construction and remodeling of school facilities, incorporating new and experimental teaching equipment.

Proponents of the desegregation bills encourage schoolmen to "think big," to design projects ranging as far as building educational parks. They caution that the criterion for success is good education in a fully integrated setting.

Early Childhood and Day Care

The nursery school, typically planned for 3- and 4-year-old children, is a twentieth century development. Nursery schools in the United States received their impetus in university centers where they were organized for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From U.S. Office of Education

studying the normal development of children. Day care centers arose earlier in slum areas to provide for the essential needs of impoverished children. New legislation on early childhood education and child care is designed to support a comprehensive system of early childhood education incorporating a wider range of services than either the early university-based program or day care center planners ever dreamed of.

The legislation which had been considered in Congress took into account the findings of the Coleman Report that poor children develop more rapidly when they participate in programs with children of middle-income backgrounds than when they are segregated by family income. The stage is now set for initiating both educational programs and for creating a nationwide chain of child care centers. And it is clear that federal dollars will become available for a variety of activities--including a significant expansion and downward extension of the popular Head Start program; bilingual education; special services for minority group children; summer, weekend or vacation activities; assistance for the handicapped; and personnel training. Involvement of public school districts is central to the goals of this legislation.

Revenue Sharing Vs. General Aid

School economists generally agree that the solution to the growing fiscal crisis in education is a tremendous increase in federal aid--from the present 7% share to a full third. This would mean, in the short run, boosting appropriations for USOE from $5 billion to more than $12 billion annually. Assuming that there is a great need to relieve the burdens of local and state taxation for schools, the question is how to do it. On this issue, two schools of thought collide.

The Nixon Administration has proposed (and temporarily laid aside) a scheme of revenue sharing--returning to the states a portion of federal income tax receipts for use as the states see fit. As originally proposed to Congress, the Administration's plan would return $5 billion to the states in "general revenue sharing," plus $3 billion in "special revenue sharing."

Instead of supporting 30 different federal aid categories, as at present, the government would use revenue sharing for five major purposes, earmarking the funds as follows:

51% for educating the disadvantaged
6% for improving education of the handicapped
14% for impacted aid (funds to schools in areas affected by federal activities)
12% for elementary, secondary and postsecondary vocational education
17% for instructional materials and equipment, supplementary educational centers and services, strengthening state educational agencies and related state and local activities.

Under the Nixon plan, state and local school systems would be given a degree of flexibility in deciding how funds would be spent in serving priority needs. States would have the authority to transfer up to 30% of the funds--except for those which are passed directly to local schools--from one purpose

to another. (The restriction on transfers would apply mainly to programs for the disadvantaged.)

Washington observers agree that education revenue sharing and general aid are not likely to become a reality in 1972, but the concept of a national minimum foundation plan, in some form, appears to be an attainable goal during this decade. "Categorical" or special-purpose grants are coming under growing and sharper criticism. Both the Johnson and Nixon Administrations have advanced proposals for consolidation of existing grants, but in forms unacceptable to most educators. A minimum foundation plan, in the view of many schoolmen, would provide relatively unrestricted grants to the states, with broad guidelines outlining national purposes. States would be free to identify their own most critical needs and use federal funds to meet them, subject to minimal interference from Washington. Support for this concept of federal funding is growing in Congress.

Research: The Key to National Education Policy

Soon after taking office, President Nixon declared that the education policies of his Administration would be keyed to reform based on new research into the processes of teaching and learning. The immediate reaction of many educators was that the Republican Administration would hide behind this philosophy as an excuse for cutting back on educational expenditures. Two successive vetoes of education appropriations suggested to schoolmen--teachers and administrators alike--that the President was anti-education. But Congressional reaction was more sympathetic. In the words of Sen. J. Glenn Beall (R-Md.), educational research is in a "sorry state.... Our social problems and rising expectations underscore the need for a quantum leap in education research, development and, equally important, dissemination of such results in the classroom." Beall points out that industry spends about 4% or $8 billion of net sales on basic and applied research; in the health area, the nation spends about 5%, or $2.5 billion of total national health expenditures for research; and in defense, the Unites States spends approximately 4%--nearly $8 billion a year for research and development. Yet, Beall notes, education research expenditures today amount to about one-fourth of 1% or about $125 million annually.

Congress has taken seriously, and the education community is warming up to, an Administration proposal to create a National Institute of Education (NIE), designed to overcome the present deficiencies of educational research and development, and to mount a massive effort to devise solutions to the most pressing problems in education. As envisioned by Congressional committees, NIE would be charged with solving the chronic failure to translate research results into methods and materials usable by practitioners in the field. Critics of the American educational system complain that the gap between research and classroom practice has been as wide as fifty years.

Arresting challenges and suggestions have emerged from hearings and committee discussion of the NIE bill. Among them:

- We need basic research into the learning process, and should seek to understand the variety of children's cognitive styles.

- Physiologists and nutritionists should explore the variety of factors which hinder (or advance) learning.
- Each curriculum area should be under continuous study to determine its practicality and its relationship to human development.
- The burgeoning "technology industry" needs careful scrutiny.
- NIE should place high priority on developing techniques to evaluate and improve teacher education and teacher retraining.
- NIE should take a look at educational finance at every level, preschool through graduate school, to determine where the money comes from, how it is spent and what the returns are.
- Assessment of postsecondary education should include consideration of possible ways to restore the dignity and appreciation of trade and career occupations.

Priorities and Concerns

In its 105-year history, USOE has been headed by commisioners who have come primarily from higher education, state department of education posts and research. Sidney P Marland, the 19th commissioner to hold the post, has served as a local school superintendent for 20 years. His concern for elementary and secondary education--curriculum and operation--became evident before he had completed even one year on the job (he took office Dec. 17, 1970). It didn't take long for him to decide on the priorities he would promote in USOE because he believes they are also the priorities for America's public schools:

The Disadvantaged. Marland believes schools must devote their resources to redressing the balance in the nation's patterns of educational opportunity. Schools must review and realign their activities to increase the assurance that no student is denied an education "that will grant him access to the fullest possible share in our national life."

The Handicapped. Marland believes it is necessary to increase substantially the numbers of children receiving direct and specific help in overcoming physical, mental or emotional handicaps. It is necessary also, he believes, to increase the number of teachers qualified specifically in the field of special education and the number of teachers in regular classrooms who are equipped with special training to accommodate the needs of handicapped children in conventional classes.

Career Education. Marland believes schools should commit themselves to giving people at all ages more choices of and better preparation for careers. This means extending and improving elementary and secondary school programs so that all those who finish high school will be prepared for meaningful work or for college. It means developing new and positive attitudes toward the whole range of occupations in our society.

Desegregation. Marland says he recognizes the needs of those school systems that are seeking to correct racial isolation in their schools. He seeks new massive U.S. aid for this purpose. This aid must be of the kind and amount that not only will end desegregation, Marland says, "but will be the beginning of a new era in education in a free, fair and truly equal society."

Local Planning for Major Problems

National priorities and local priorities in education do not always coincide. But concern for the disadvantaged and for the handicapped, the improvement of vocational education and the promotion of integration are dominant concerns for many local school districts. New types of local board of education policies and administrative plans are needed to carry out the large purposes listed above. Specifically, federal officials see the need for local school authorities to plan action on such problems as:

- Setting up inservice education programs for improving teacher attitudes toward disadvantaged children.
- Finding more effective methods of teaching the disadvantaged.
- Experimenting with ways to evaluate the instructional programs offered the disadvantaged.
- Mobilizing community resources for preschool handicapped children.
- Developing models for career education for handicapped youth.
- Securing community assistance--parents, advisory councils, public agencies--in the development of career education programs.
- Organizing placement services for all youngsters exiting from the school.
- Making more effective use of paraprofessionals and volunteer aides in career education programs.
- Developing guidelines for selecting, placing, training and evaluating staff members for desegregated schools.
- Finding approaches for involvement of students, parents and civic groups in the promotion of integrative practices in schools.
- Exploring methods to assess the success or failure of integrative efforts.

Washington *Analysis

The Education Amendments of 1972

Enactment of the $20 billion omnibus education bill--the Education Amendments of 1972--marks a significant new era in federal school involvement. In several new initiatives, the federal government has committed itself to major programs to aid school desegregation, educational research and financially troubled colleges. Although the bulk of the bill deals with higher education, Congressional leaders used the measure--the only major education bill to be considered by the 92nd Congress--to deal with other issues as well--ethnic heritage, consumer, occupational and Indian education programs. Included in the 155-page, 10-title measure were several controversial anti-busing provisions.

Desegregation Aid

All but obscured by the busing debate was the establishment of a large new program to help schools desegregate--the Emergency School Assistance Program (ESAP). To date, the only federal money available to aid desegregation has been about $20 million a year in technical assistance under Title IV of the Civil Rights Act and about $70 million under a pilot ESAP project. The new bill offers a promise of $2 billion over two years to promote desegregation. The measure notes: "The Congress finds that the process of eliminating or preventing minority group isolation and improving the quality of education for all children often involves the expenditure of additional funds to which local education agencies do not have access." Funds can be used for a wide variety of general and specific purposes, including busing under certain conditions. However, the plan is not likely to receive all the $2 billion authorization. Congress typically doles out less than half of education authorizations. But the new program is now the second largest on the elementary and secondary education books, surpassed only by the mammoth Title I ESEA compensatory education program.

Research Institute

Another new federal initiative is the creation of a National Institute of Education (NIE). Based on the model of the National Institutes of Health, NIE promises more and better federally sponsored educational research. Establishment of NIE admits that top-notch schooling will require far more knowledge about learning and education than now exists--or can be expected from current research efforts. At least 90% of the $550 million authorized over three

years must be contracted out with private or public agencies or individuals. Congress also gave NIE the main responsibility for disseminating research findings, so that teachers and administrators can apply "the best current knowledge" to their problems. Here again, the bill states bold policy: "While the direction of the education system remains primarily the responsibility of state and local governments, the federal government has a clear responsibility to provide leadership in the conduct and support of scientific inquiry into the educational process."

New USOE Structure

Perhaps significant in the long run will be the new structure of the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) mapped out in the legislation. For years, education groups have wanted a separate department of education, and this bill takes the first step toward that goal by creating a new post of assistant secretary of education. The Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee said of the proposal: "The committee is serving notice that a Department of Education is now in order, and that within the next few years, the question of the proper organization of education policy bodies ought to be resolved...." The head of this new education division would oversee both the present USOE, headed by the U.S. commissioner of education, and the NIE. If, as seems likely, the federal government will eventually have to take over up to one-third of the cost of financing elementary and secondary education, many observers believe a U.S. Department of Education would almost be prerequisite.

Several sections of the bill can also be seen as dissatisfaction with U.S. Comr. of Education Sidney P. Marland's administration of USOE. The bill specifically prohibits unauthorized program consolidation and transfer--affecting Marland's proposed educational renewal plan. The new bill also mandates several key organizational changes which Marland did not want: creation of a deputy commissioner for vocational and occupational education, and a separate division of bilingual education within the bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education. The implication is that the Marland/Nixon Administration had been downgrading these and other programs, contrary to the intent of Congress. In another sense, the legislative prohibitions are a classic example of a fight between the legislative and executive branches over how programs should be run once they are set up. The congressional edicts seek to assert congressional, rather than executive, authority over education.

Special Interests

Another message gleaned from scrutiny of the new bill is that despite all the talk in the past several years about eliminating narrow, categorical programs, Congress continues to create them. In part, this is the result of pressure from special interest groups, as in the case of the ethnic heritage studies provision. In other cases, as in the establishment of special programs in consumer and Indian education, Congress wants to make sure that neglected areas get the attention it believes they deserve. The bill can also be seen as proof that lobbying does work. While the major programs, such as desegregation aid, NIE, student and college aid, were Presidential

proposals, the creation of a new vocational-occupational post and the establishment of an education division, were the result of steadfast lobbying by interested groups.

Words of Caution

There are two things the bill does not mean: the end of the busing controversy; or massive student aid for all college-bound high school students. Neither liberals nor conservatives were happy with the bill's anti-busing compromise which delays court-ordered busing in a district until all appeals have been exhausted, or until Jan. 1, 1974. Busing is allowed, under the legislation, if transportation does not endanger a student's health nor send him to an inferior school. But Southerners who had fought hard for an outright ban on busing are not likely to give up. Pres. Nixon signed the bill reluctantly, sharply criticizing Congress for not having provided strict and uniform limits on school busing. Presidential advisors say that Nixon will press for a constitutional amendment if Congress does not act on his stricter anti-busing proposals.

The much heralded student-aid provision entitling every student to a basic $1,400 federal grant adjusted according to need must also be seen in perspective. The flaw is that the full entitlement of $1,400 will not be available until Congress fully funds this part of the program at about $900 million annually--not an immediate prospect. If the overall appropriation is less, individual grants will be scaled down. In addition, the entitlements will not be granted in any year during which appropriations for existing programs of direct grants and loans fall below a certain level. Under the adjustment formula, few students will actually be eligible for the full $1,400 anyway. School guidance counselors and administrators should check the fine print in the education bill before sending students off with visions of federal cash.

By the Skin of the Teeth

Despite objections that might be raised against the bill, schoolmen should note that two years of work almost went down the drain on the final vote. The legislation got shouted down on the House floor minutes before final passage. Speaker of the House Carl Albert, reluctant to see such a landmark measure die over the emotional busing issue, called for a roll call vote. Observers in the gallery, who were keeping mental tabs of the "yeas" and "nays," counted the bill lost by about five votes. But somehow speeches on the floor, which kept reminding legislators that "if the bill's not perfect, it's the best we've got," must have made their mark. At the last minute, about a dozen Congressmen went up to the House clerk and changed their votes. The bill was narrowly approved: 218 for, 180 against. The Senate had approved it earlier by a wide 63-15 margin. As one Representative put it, "A bird in the hand is worth a dozen promises in committee."

Washington Refresher *Course

Short Course in Federal Aid Grantsmanship

CAPSULE: The federal dollar authorized and appropriated for local school district use, often seems elusive, almost impossible to get. Complexities of regulations, limitations, guidelines--as well as competition--add to the problem. But often the local educator himself is partly to blame as he loses his direction and his sense of humor in the tangle of proposal preparation. Below is a 15-minute refresher course that may help sharpen your skills in grantsmanship. It was prepared by Russell A. Working, executive director, State and Federal Programs, Toledo Public Schools, Toledo, Ohio.

Getting your share of the federal dollar calls for the application of effort, time, common sense and a knowledge of the rules and guidelines established by federal law--in short, working through a game plan.

It may appear to the novice in federal grantsmanship that the rules of the game are ambiguous, restricting and all too time-consuming. And, indeed, at first they seem to be so.

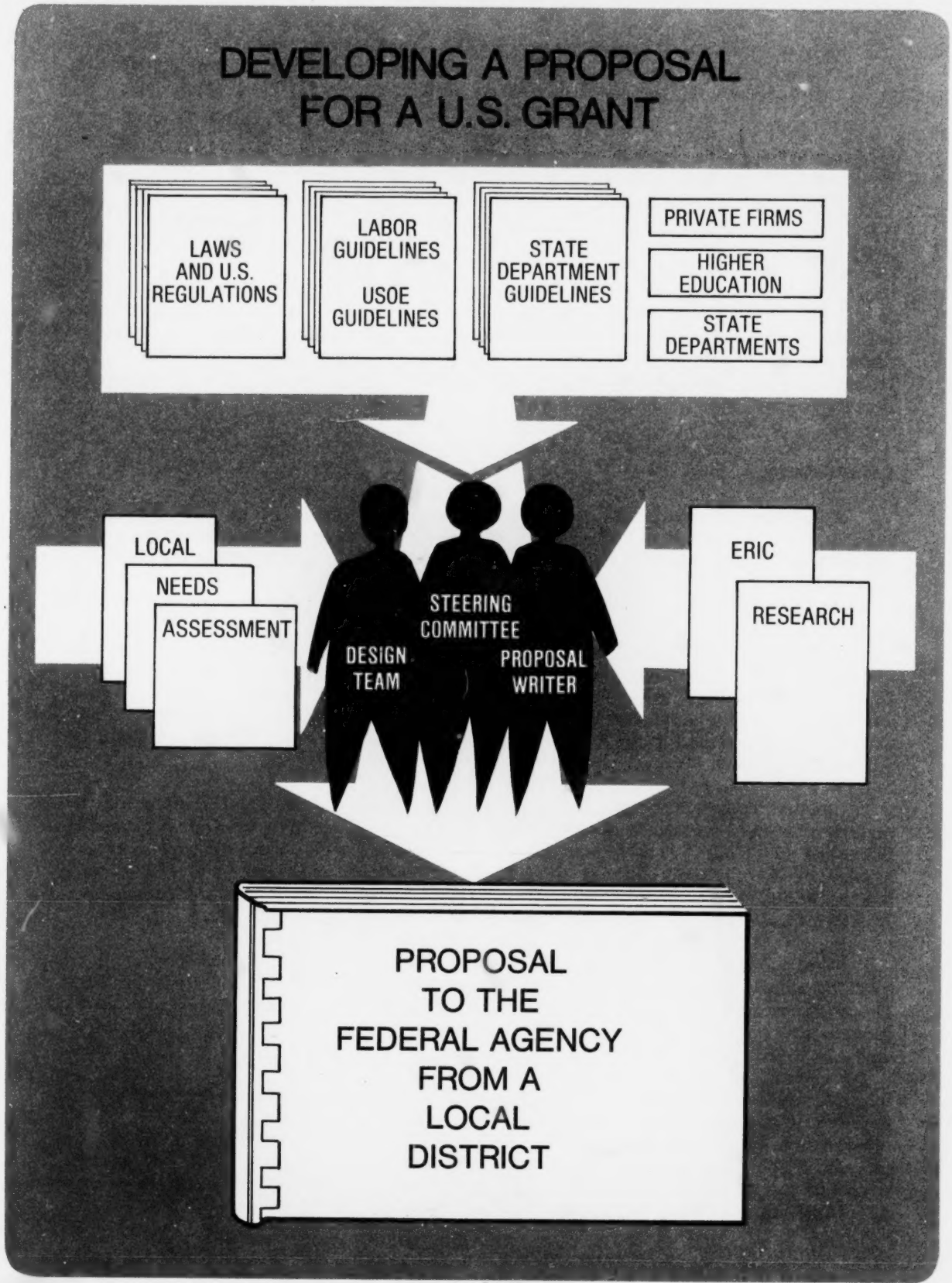
But mastering the skills of grantsmanship is worth the effort. What school district, large or small, rural or urban, cannot use additional monies to improve its programs through research and demonstration projects or through supplementary services and activities?

Skills in Grantsmanship

Fewer federal dollars have found their way to the smaller school district or to the rural district than to urban and suburban districts. One reason for this disparity is grantsmanship. Suburban and urban schools often have personnel who are charged with full-time assignments that require them to learn the grantsmanship game. Two comments must be made here:

- An aggressive approach to grantsmanship does not require that the school district designate a full-time person to seek federal funds. Part-time and cooperative efforts to seek federal funds often serve to strengthen the leadership ability of the local participating staff. Of course, this potential is given a shot in the arm if the proposal is funded.

- Grantsmanship skills are not that complex. They are, in fact, equivalent to common sense. They can be learned by reorganizing and sharpening


DEVELOPING A PROPOSAL FOR A U.S. GRANT
LAWS AND U.S. REGULATIONS
LABOR GUIDELINES
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STATE DEPARTMENT GUIDELINES
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ERIC
RESEARCH
PROPOSAL TO THE FEDERAL AGENCY FROM A LOCAL DISTRICT

what a good educator already knows. Grantsmanship puts to work the rules of public relations, staff involvement and commitment, disciplined thinking and a respect for accountability.

Orientation to Proposal Development

Basically, it does not matter whether the school district is considering developing a proposal for allocated or discretionary funds in terms of the process you must go through to bring that proposal to its final form. The school district is more certain to receive the allocated funds because these funds, e.g., ESEA Title I and II, are earmarked for eligible districts on a formula basis. Discretionary funds are significantly different. These are monies for which the school district must compete and the quality, orientation and scope of the proposal is more crucial. Irrespective of the differences between these two types of funding sources the procedures for developing proposals are very similar.

Getting Organized

Proposal planning and development is not recommended as a one-man operation. True, one person should be assigned the task of coordinating the effort and others under him should be given specific, identified tasks that mesh with others carried out by other staff members. But under no instance is it suggested that the superintendent or a member on the staff attempt to develop a one-man proposal. Share the load. One-man proposals quite often turn out to be "thin" and do not reflect the needs and purposes of a school district. This becomes quickly apparent to the federal authorities. The result is a reduced possibility of being funded. But even if funded, one-man proposals meet substantial resistance in the implementing stages. People who are to implement programs should be involved in their planning from the very beginning.

Secure from your Congressman copies of the laws and the amendments that govern the federal funding sources to which you consider making application. Use also (1) your state department of education, (2) your regional commissioner of education, and (3) officials in Washington. The Winter 1972 and Spring 1972 issues of the FEDERAL AID PLANNER give names and addresses of federal staff members who can be helpful on specific programs.

Assign someone the task of ordering copies of U.S. regulations and federal or state guidelines for those program areas in which you have an interest. These documents are more specific than the basic laws concerning who is eligible, the procedures for making application, when you may apply and to whom, and the funding limits within which you can apply.

Organize a steering committee comprised of administrators, teachers and community members. What should be its tasks? One thing is clear: it should not write the proposal. Committees should not attempt to write proposals. They can set goals, provide direction and review. But don't expect a committee to do the writing. The steering committee will guide the proposal planning through a number of significant tasks, including:

- needs assessment
- problem identification
- identified alternative solutions
- program priority specification
- proposal development

You will hear bureaucrats--federal, state and local--say such things as, "You must first identify the educational needs in your school district before you even consider applying for funds." There is, of course, more than a little truth to this, but it is not that easily accomplished. There needs to be some reasonable blend between the perceived needs of teachers, students and community and the needs that can be inferred from objective data such as achievement indicators, drop-out rates, numbers of students going on to training beyond high school, attendance rates. Making determinations from these data to establish program priorities is essential. Don't try to sidestep this important first stage in proposal development. You must be prepared to document the underlying needs to justify your proposal. The needs assessment presents to the proposal reviewers the degree to which you know the current status of your school district and, equally important, what direction you want to go. Don't allow yourself to use educational platitudes. Be specific about where your school system stands. Candor is rewarding.

While assessment is proceeding at the local level, cast your eyes about at the state and national levels. Call or write key people. Find out what the national priorities are. The extent that you can reasonably relate your needs to national priorities is the extent to which your proposal may be a turnkey for you. Such obvious tactics are helpful and certainly opportunistic. A word of caution: don't force your identified educational needs in a contrived way to correlate with the national needs. Do keep in mind, however, that the federal government is looking for local school districts who can serve as partners in the pursuit of solutions to mutual problems.

Identify Your Resources

Your greatest resource is in your staff and the community. You may need to rebuild your contacts and strengthen the cooperative spirit among the people around you, if you have not routinely relied on staff and community input in the planning. But if you are convinced of the importance of what federal dollars can do to benefit all those involved, then you have the necessary fuel to stir them into constructive action. Your plan will be better for all of this effort. The formula goes something like this:

$$\begin{matrix}\text{Administration}\\ + \\ \text{Teachers}\\ + \\ \text{Community}\end{matrix} + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{Knowledge of school}\\ \text{problems and needs}\end{matrix}\right. + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{Consensus}\\ \text{on goals}\end{matrix}\right. + \left\{\begin{matrix}\text{Plan of action}\\ \text{to meet goals}\end{matrix}\right.$$

Before you reach out for assistance from consultants from nearby colleges and universities, or from private consulting firms, do your homework. Know what you expect from consultants that will permit you and your staff to proceed with clarity and understanding. It is inappropriate to delegate pro-

posal writing to outside individuals or groups. The real value of having your staff assume the responsibility is that it "pulls" the staff together and generates a much stronger commitment on the part of the staff to the proposal. This commitment has real payoff during the implementation period.

There is much to be gained by establishing "inside" contacts with your state education agency and at the federal level. Staff members within these organizations not only can be very helpful, they want to be! They do want to react to specific or general program plans. They are not enthusiastic, however, about "fishing expeditions," in which there is an aimless conversational wandering among "possible" projects.

There is one important additional resource: research findings. For some reason educators tend to shy away from doing this part of their homework in proposal writing. When the program priority has been selected, a review of the literature and research studies will be of inestimable value to the proposal designers--those who make preliminary decisions about how the program is to be organized and how it will operate. The program design team is, under optimal conditions, a sub-group of the steering committee. ERIC (Educational Research Information Clearing-House) represents one of many helpful sources for the design team in their search for appropriate and current research findings. Make sure the proposal design team covers the research resources thoroughly.

Writing the Proposal

When the design team has cleared its project recommendations through the steering committee, a proposal writer, who has been selected earlier and who has participated in the planning sessions, can be asked to prepare an initial draft for committee review. What does the draft proposal include? That varies with the funding source. They practically all have different proposal formats and application forms. But the writer's job is not to create the Great American Novel.

While significant differences do exist among acceptable proposal formats from one program funding source to another, there are some similarities which include:

- Justification for the proposal: Why should the proposal be funded? What are the specific needs that are to be met by the proposal? What are the target populations that are to receive the services? How long has the problem existed? What has already been done about it? What is the likelihood of success?

- Specific objectives that are to be achieved as a result of the project: What is to be changed (behavior), over how long a period, and according to what measurement indicators?

- Detailed operational procedures: How will participants be selected? How will the program be conducted and for how long? What kinds of facilities and supplies are needed? What are staffing requirements? Are consultants to be employed--if so, who, and for what purpose?

- Adequate evaluation design: Using the objectives as indicators of desired ends, what evaluation techniques are to be used? Who will administer them, and when?

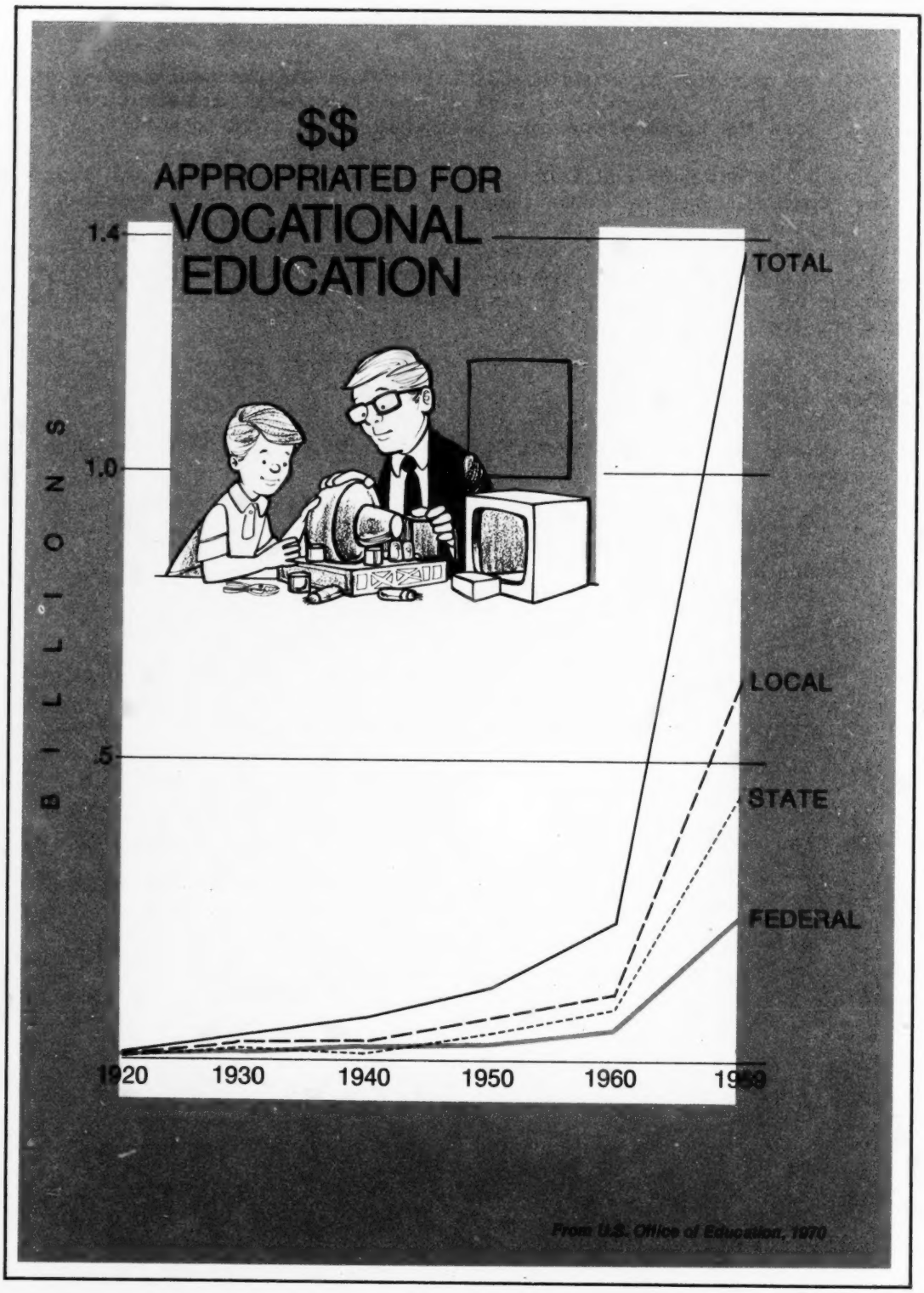
If time permits, it would be helpful to have the proposal read by others not involved in its design or writing to see if it meets an essential criterion: Does the proposal say to others what you want it to say?

The local board of education should be kept informed about the progress of the proposal. But now comes the point when the board must review and accept the proposal before it is officially submitted, either to the state education agency or the federal office. An assurance of support for the proposal from the top to the bottom of a school district is not only highly desirable but also mandatory if the proposal is viewed as a means of bringing about controlled change.

A Summary of Helpful Hints

Securing the elusive federal dollars will be easier, if these suggestions are followed:

1. Read and reread the guidelines.
2. Share the task of researching the basis for the proposal.
3. Reach out for community participation in proposal planning.
4. Be sensitive to state and national priorities.
5. Do a thorough job of needs assessment.
6. Research the proposal topic well.
7. Seek expert advice as you need it.
8. Be your own proposal manager.
9. Try to build the proposed program into the school system as an integral part, not separate and detached.
10. Secure top-to-bottom support for the proposal before it is submitted.
11. Set schedules for yourself and your staff. Meet your deadlines.
12. Use your staff according to their capabilities. Assign jobs to people who can do them.
13. Seek advice and counsel from state and federal agencies--get to know "key" staff members.
14. Eliminate education jargon--and avoid the emotional appeal.
15. Submit a project that you can manage. Don't try to do too much.
16. Have confidence. You and your staff can do it.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From U.S. Office of Education, 1970

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Planning ALERT

Career Education

All education is career education. Or should be.

This is the idea--controversial or not--which dominates the thinking of key federal education officials. To promote the idea, they have pledged their time and efforts, and whatever dollars they can place behind the concept.

No formal definition of career education has yet come into existence.

Sidney P. Marland Jr., U.S. commissioner of education and chief advocate of career education, would like to see a national discussion on its uses (he's convinced of its merits); and he is financing the development of a number of models for possible use in elementary and secondary schools throughout the nation. So a definition of career education--if one is needed--would take care of itself.

Both vocational and nonvocational educators in the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) are entwined in the career education concept. U.S. vocational educators see career education as a system of operating principles under which preparation for jobs, marketable skills and the world of work would not be carried on in isolation in a separate curriculum, but would be diffused throughout the curriculum.

Academic, nonvocational educators see career education as a means for giving meaning and purpose to most subjects of the curriculum by directing them toward the career goals of the student.

It is dissatisfaction with the results of both "things academic and things vocational" which has given career education its life. "Vocational education has not made it in America," Marland said recently. He argued with facts such as these:

- Up to about 1965, fewer than 12% of our high school students were exposed to skill-producing training.
- Today, only one high school student in four is enrolled in a vocational course.
- And even graduates of trade curricula are not all hired by industry--either because they lack the specific skills needed by industry or are generally unqualified to take a place in the world of work.

The academic and general curricula of our secondary schools also need drastic shake-ups, according to Marland and his associates. Some of their criticisms: The academic courses are steeped in snobbery. Many are unrealistic and unrelated to the future needs of our citizens. True, academic courses prepare students for college--but once there, many drop out during their freshman and sophomore years; or else, "in a pernicious conformism," they stay four years to get credentials they don't need. "The flood of bachelor's degrees has inevitably reduced their value as an entree to a good professional job because there aren't that many jobs in the American economy which require a college education," Marland insists.

The general curriculum is the target of Marland's severest criticism. He charges: "Millions of American students are locked into ill-conceived, unproductive, so-called generalized courses--a fallacious compromise between true academic liberal arts and true vocational offerings." The general curriculum offers watered-down math, nonspecific science, easier English--a bland diet with not much to chew on and not much to swallow.

Individually and separately, each of the three types of offerings--vocational, general and academic--is weak and inadequate for America's youth. But education's most serious failing, Marland states, is a tendency to "separate education's several parts from one another, to divide the entire enterprise against itself and to set up the false dichotomy between things academic and things vocational."

To correct some of the ills of America's public schools, USOE urges that local school administrators:

- Do away with the generalized courses and curricula.
- Introduce the single and unifying concept of career education into all offerings for all students and all levels.
- Introduce larger doses of work-experience programs for a large number of youth.
- Modernize vocational education for those students who decide to go into jobs after graduation from high school.

The clear-cut purposes, then, of American education, if Marland's views are carried out, would be to prepare students either to become properly and usefully employed immediately upon graduation from high school--or to go on to further formal education.

Where Is Vocational Education?

There is another view from Washington that has a bearing on the local school administrator's thinking and planning in relation to vocational education. It is the view of 21 concerned--and sometimes angry--men and women who make up the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education (NACVE). The council is an official body, created by Congress, with its own appropriation, charged to advise Congress and the Executive Branch on vocational education.

NACVE endorses the concept of career education. Its Fifth Report (June 1971) declares that it will assist the Commissioner of Education in the development of a strong program of vocational education, as part of career education. But NACVE speaks out angrily, calling attention to the facts that:

- Forty million elementary school children need career education.
- Seven and one-half million young people need employment after graduation.
- Nearly three-quarters of a million high school and college dropouts have virtually no marketable skills.
- Additional millions--including workers displaced by technology, returning veterans, older workers and the physically handicapped, mothers of school-age children--need marketable skills to sustain themselves.

Is anybody listening to the voices of these millions and doing something about their needs? "We do not think so," say members of NACVE. "That is why there is an educational consumer revolt developing in our land today. The public's limit of tolerance has been reached. The people are on the verge of wresting control of the delivery of educational services from the managers of public education."

The mood of NACVE is one of impatience. The mood of the people, it declares, is punitive. NACVE says the people want to know (1) why the educational system is not responsive to the demands of society, and (2) why the managers of the educational system continue to be so maladroit in implementing a policy which would meet the basic needs of the people--a policy of improved and extended vocational education.

"Where has vocational education been?" NACVE asked recently. NACVE charges that many educators have kept vocational education at the bottom of their organizational charts, at the bottom of their lists of goals. NACVE urges "the keepers of the keys of educational policy" and the managers of local educational systems to turn things around. "We implore (educational) decision makers to join in the active reorientation of our educational system to embrace the concept of a totally articulated vocational thrust."

The Anatomy of Career Education

Career education is a double-edged concept. It can be used to reorient vocational education. It can be used to reshape all schooling and to redesign all subjects for all students.

At least that is the view offered by its proponents. To decide on the value of career education, the local school administrator will want to look closely at what goes into the concept and how it might be put into use.

What follows is a pattern for career education--neither complete nor official--to be used for discussion by administrators and faculty. The construction of an official model for career education is a challenge for research

and practical administration. But enough of the ingredients of career education have been identified in Washington to permit school administrators to think about them and to plan for their implementation.

For elementary and secondary grades, career education imbues all basic subjects taught in grades 1-12 with the theme of career opportunities and the requirements for the world of work. In elementary school, students are informed about the wide range of jobs and the skills these jobs require. In junior high school, students explore several clusters of occupations through hands-on experiences and field observations. Classroom instruction is always part of the learning experiences. With guidance, junior high students select an occupational area for further specialization at the senior high level. In senior high school, students concentrate on their selected occupational area. They may exercise one of three options: (1) intensive job preparation for entry into the world of work immediately upon leaving high school; (2) preparation for post-secondary occupational education; or (3) preparation for college.

Career education would guarantee each student:

- Basic academic skills essential for further occupational training or for further education.
- Extensive guidance and counseling services to help the student know himself, develop healthy attitudes toward work, know his talents, and know how to decide on his future career in his own interests and in the interests of society.
- Placement, either in an entry-level job or in a learning station for his further education upon graduation.

The Objectives

School systems planning for career education will have to set up major objectives for each level of education. Federal officials have sketched the following sets of objectives to encourage discussion.

For the K-6 level the objectives are:

- To develop in pupils attitudes about the personal and social significance of work.
- To develop each pupil's self-awareness of his interests, needs, abilities.
- To develop and expand the occupational awareness and aspirations of pupils.
- To improve overall pupil performance by unifying and focusing basic subjects around a career development theme.

For grades 7 and 8, career education objectives are:

- To assist students, through counseling, in evaluating their interests, abilities, values and needs as they relate to occupational roles.
- To provide students with opportunities for detailed exploration of selected occupational clusters (including hands-on laboratory experience and work-experience), leading to the tentative selection of a particular cluster of occupations for in-depth exploration in the ninth grade.

- To improve the performance of students in basic subject areas by making subject matter more meaningful and relevant through focusing it on a career development theme.

For grades 9 and 10, the objectives are:

- To provide in-depth exploration and training in one cluster of occupations, leading to entry-level skill in one occupational area and providing a foundation for further progress, leaving open the option to move between clusters of occupations if desired.
- To improve the performance of students in basic subject areas by making subject matter more meaningful and relevant through focusing it on a career development theme.
- To provide guidance and counseling to assist students in selecting an occupational specialty for grades 11 and 12, with the following options: intensive job preparation, preparation for post-secondary occupational programs or preparation for a four-year college.

In a district devoted to career education, the student would spend the early grades developing self-awareness and becoming informed about the world of work. The middle grades would be devoted to career exploration. The first two years of high school would provide the student with beginnings of career specialization. In this scheme, vocational education, preparation for technical training and for college are continuations of career development.

For grades 11 and 12, the career education objectives are:

- To provide every student intensive preparation in a selected occupational cluster, or in a specific occupation, in preparation for job-entry and/or further education.
- To increase the student's motivation to learn by relating his studies to the world of work.
- To provide intensive guidance and counseling in preparation for the student's employment and/or further education.
- To insure placement of all students in a job, post-secondary occupational education or a four-year college.

The Curriculum

The occupation would be at the center of the career education curriculum. But since ours is a complex society, it is useful to talk about clusters of occupations--jobs connected with major human enterprises. The curriculum would be designed on the basis of these major occupational clusters:

Business and Office
Marketing and Distribution
Communications and Media
Construction
Manufacturing
Transportation
Agriculture and Natural Resources
Marine Science
Environmental Control
Public Services
Health
Recreation
Personal Services
Fine Arts and Humanities
Consumer and Homemaking

Curriculum Development

To restructure the educational programs around career education concepts will take time, effort and a variety of approaches for different grade levels. The overall task is to develop a series of curricula for each of the 15 clusters listed on the preceding page, all centering on what men and women do to earn a living and function to promote the interests of society. Some other curriculum approaches useful at different grade levels:

1. For grades K-6, curriculum workers will provide guidelines and materials to help teachers explore each of the 15 occupational clusters with the youngsters. Thus, a teacher might select the transportation cluster and explore with the students such questions as: What jobs and occupations are needed to support transportation services? Who works in these occupations? What do people do on their jobs? What kinds of tools and materials do they work with? What do they accomplish on their jobs? Similar questions might be explored for each of the other 14 occupational clusters.

2. For grades 7 and 8, curriculum workers will develop a one-semester exploratory curriculum for each occupational cluster. Each program would include on-site observations of work, hands-on laboratory experiences, role playing, work experience, classroom instruction and independent study.

3. For grades 9 to 12, curriculum workers will so reorient science, language arts, social studies and math that these subjects will be clearly identified with occupational clusters. Because at the secondary school level most students will have chosen a specific occupation for study, the curricula in grades 9 to 12 will have to serve the specific interests and needs of the student and the occupational interest of his choosing.

Making It Happen

Curriculum development for career education has to be supported by ample supplies of instructional materials. Examples of the types needed are "The World of Construction" and "The World of Manufacturing," which were developed with a USOE grant at Ohio State U. (and published by McKnight and McKnight, Inc.). Other materials are being developed by local school districts and by commercial publishers and producers of instructional materials. Extensive curriculum materials for job preparation in specific occupations are already available from industry, defense training centers, labor unions and the publishing industry.

Inservice education parallels and supports curriculum development, and must be provided for supervisors, teachers, counselors and paraprofessionals. USOE officials make the following point in connection with the vast professional reorientation that must take place on behalf of career education: "During the first years when it will be necessary for teachers to rework their lesson plans and make many changes in their instructional procedures, the local school district will probably want to provide overtime pay for the additional hours which the teachers will be putting in." Additional equipment, tools, supplies, materials and facilities will be needed for implementation of career education. These will vary from simple tools and materials used in the elementary grades, through the more complex apparatus needed for exploratory purposes at the

junior high school level, and on into complicated and sophisticated equipment and facilities which may be needed at the senior high school level in each of the 15 clusters.

A great deal of the equipment and facility problem can be alleviated by expanding work experience programs and cooperative vocational education programs which utilize existing facilities and equipment within the business and industrial community.

To support career education programs, school administrators will need to establish advisory councils in each of the occupational clusters, with the members drawn from management, labor and government agencies.

Finally, an active and well staffed placement service will be an important part of career education models. Such a placement service will work constantly to place all youngsters either in a job or in further education when they leave the school system.

From Theory to Practice

How practical is the concept of career education? Will it work? Can local educational agencies begin planning career education programs with some assurance that they will be successful?

Answers to these questions may be provided by (1) school districts which are involved in exemplary vocational education projects--there are more than 50 of these; and by (2) school districts involved in developing model strategies for career education under a research study conducted at Ohio State U. --there are about a half-dozen of these.

Exemplary Projects

The transition of career education from theory to practice became possible in 1968, when Congress approved a plan to develop exemplary projects in vocational education. The projects actually got under way in 1970 under the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 (Part D, Section 142/c).

Project directors were asked to structure practical models for K-12 career education programs. They were asked to concentrate on the major components of a career education system:

- To develop career information for elementary and secondary school students.
- To develop a wide variety of work experience through cooperative educational programs.
- To provide intensive skill training.
- To seek ways to guarantee intensive occupational and educational counseling.

Every state in the Union is today a locale for an exemplary project, and many of these, operating in different settings and for students with varied backgrounds and interests, have already yielded practical clues which in due course will help local administrators set into motion their own career education plans.

Below is a list of exemplary projects with experiences useful for the development of career education systems. Although each project may be developing ideas, concepts and materials useful at the elementary, junior high and senior high school grades, we have noted for each a point of strength or a program of emphasis.

Cheyenne, Wyo.: Development and demonstration of a functional model system of occupational education in Wyoming public schools, K-14. (Dean P. Talagan, Chief of Occupational Education, Capitol Building, Cheyenne, Wyo. 82001.)
Program of strength: for elementary grades.

Bismarck, N.D.: Statewide program in developmental vocational guidance (K-12) and occupational preparation for the changing world of work. (Larry Selland, State Board of Vocational Education, 900 E. Boulevard, Bismarck, N.D. 58501.)
Point of emphasis: for rural senior high school grades.

Topeka, Kan.: A program in occupational education in rural, rural-urban and urban school settings. (W. A. Rawson, State Dept. of Education, 120 E. Tenth St., Topeka, Kan. 66612.)
Program of strength: for elementary grades.

Pontiac, Mich.: Vocational career development program. (Robert Rochow, NE Oakland Vocational Center, 1351 N. Parry St., Pontiac, Mich. 48058.)
Program of strength: for elementary grades.

Marietta, Ga.: Developmental program of occupational education. (Joel Smith, Project Director, P.O. Drawer R, Marietta, Ga. 30060.)
Program of strength: for junior high school grades.

Pittsburgh, Pa.: Functional components of a vocational education counseling system for urban youth. (R. G. Lamping, OVT Center, 635 Ridge Ave., Pittsburgh, Pa. 15212.)
Program of strength: for junior high school grades.

Hackensack, N.J.: Preschool to adult model program for the Hackensack School District. (Robert A. Briant and T. W. Gambino, New Jersey State Dept. of Education, Vocational Division, 225 W. State St., Trenton, N.J. 08625.)
Program of strength: for elementary grades.

For a complete list of the 50 exemplary projects, write: Sidney High Jr., Division of Vocational and Technical Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.

Guiding Youth into the World of Work

The experience of being employed in a real-world job is indispensable to career education; it is also a valuable part of vocational training. To encourage schools and employers to provide such work experiences, and students to take part in them, is the purpose of one of the fastest growing movements: cooperative vocational education.

'Congress Finds . . .'

New impetus for this movement came from Congress in 1968. In its thorough reconstruction of vocational education laws, Congress added Part G to the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968, declaring: "The Congress finds that cooperative work-study programs offer many advantages in preparing young people for employment. Through such programs, meaningful work experience is combined with formal education, enabling students to acquire knowledge, skills and appropriate attitudes. Such programs remove the artificial barriers which separate work and education and, by involving educators with employers, create interaction whereby the needs and problems of both are made known...."

Values Summarized

Values of cooperative vocational programs had been recognized for many years prior to the 1968 declaration by Congress. Cooperative education has been carried on under state vocational education plans for decades (and now is continued under Part B of the Vocational Education Amendments). Educators have found that practical work experience helps students become aware of their interests and talents, for they have opportunity to test their capacities in real-life situations.

At the same time, cooperative vocational education adds breadth and depth of meaning to the student's classroom work. Work experience opens new career opportunities for youth and gives both employers and students a chance for trial acquaintance before full-time employment. Cooperative education has an outstanding record of guiding youth into the world of work and of stimulating students to greater scholastic achievement.

Part B, Part G

These two sections of the vocational education statute work side by side to provide cooperative education. Part G adds new dollars for the support of an older concept but gives priority to students in communities troubled by high rates of dropouts and youth unemployment. During fiscal 1970 (latest data available), both phases of cooperative education enrolled some 290,000 students. It is significant that of that number more than 23,000 were in Part G programs, even though these have been in existence only one full year. Rapid growth of cooperative education on both fronts is expected for several years to come. But look to Part G--this is where the big growth will be this year and next, because local school districts are applying for Part G funds in unusually large numbers.

Part B programs are funded out of the basic vocational grants to states. Part G has its own authorization and appropriation. Here are the Part G figures for fiscal 1972:

Authorized $75,000,000

Appropriated and signed by the President..... 19,500,000

In view of the popularity of cooperative education, observers expect that Part G appropriations for fiscal 1973 will approach the authorized figure, and that a larger share of basic grants to states also will go for cooperative education. The demand by local school districts for cooperative education support almost assures that possibility.

The Basic Definition

There are a number of forms and types of work-experience and work-study programs, but cooperative vocational education has its own special and legal definition. It is...

> A program of vocational education for persons who, through a cooperative arrangement between the school and employers, receive instruction including required academic courses and related vocational instruction by alternation of study in school with a job in any occupational field, but these two experiences must be planned and supervised by the school and employers so that each contributes to the student's education and his employability. Work periods and school attendance may be on alternate half-days, full-days, weeks or other periods of time....

Funding: How It's Done

Your local school district may be reimbursed by the state for cooperative vocational education expenditures under Part B and Part G of the vocational education laws.

Part B funds may be used for the continuation of existing vocational education programs and for expansion of cooperative education to serve additional youths and to cover additional occupational fields. The amount of reimbursement for local expenditures will depend on criteria set up by your state plan.

If you plan to set up a new cooperative program, Part G funds are probably your best bet. And you will have even a better chance of getting Part G funds if you plan to provide for students prone to dropping out of high school or students who are likely to be unemployed after graduation.

Part G funds have the added advantage that they may be used for possible funding up to 100% of the program cost. They may also be used to reimburse employers for added costs of accepting students for training; and in some cases to pay students for transportation and other costs incurred as a result of participation in a cooperative program.

Useful Guide

A Guide for Cooperative Vocational Education is a useful 125-page publication which sums up the best thinking and practices on this subject. Local school districts may find it invaluable while planning for cooperative vocational education programs. Basically a federal document, the guide is distributed by the Nicholson Book Store, U. of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. 55455. Price, $2 per copy.

Three Imperatives

Plan long and carefully. Federal officials recommend that school administrators allow from 9 to 15 months to plan and get ready before cooperative vocational education classes start.

Maintain high standards for teaching, learning and achievement. The student enrolled in cooperative education is entitled to a carefully worked out curriculum, skilled instructors and learning environments of quality--both in school and on his training station.

Comply with labor laws. Students enrolled in cooperative programs and receiving on-the-job training are subject to all local, state and federal labor laws. School administrators and teacher coordinators should be aware of regulations pertaining to age, minimum wages, overtime pay, hours of work, hazardous occupations and insurance.

Superintendent's Plan of Action
For Setting Up a Cooperative Vocational Education Program

A. Determine whether a program is needed and is feasible.

- Learn your state's requirements for the operation of the program.
- Request assistance from your state education agency in determining need and in planning for the program.
- Determine the extent of interest and possible support for the program. Get information from students, parents, faculty.
- Determine the number and types of training stations available. The following may help in making this local survey: local advisory committee on vocational education, public employment service, chamber of commerce, labor unions, service clubs, trade associations.
- Determine how the cooperative education program will fit into the total school program. Some questions to consider: (1) What courses must be added for effective operation of the program? (2) Can students get to their training stations from home and school without undue difficulty? (3) Can adequate physical facilities, instructional materials and equipment be provided? (4) Does the curriculum provide for the courses necessary to support cooperative vocational education--such as career information courses? (5) Are instructional personnel available?
- Make extensive and repeated contacts in the community to determine the extent of interest and support among individual employers.

B. If the program is needed and feasible, the following actions may then be appropriate:

- Determine the procedure for naming an advisory committee, with the advice and counsel of the board of education.
- Identify the students who would benefit and be interested in the program.
- Identify the occupations for which training will be sought.
- Recheck the nature, amount and sources of local support that will be necessary--funds, space, equipment, instructional materials.
- Sum up the entire proposal in writing, giving purpose, policy, control procedures, responsibilities of personnel, organizational structure --plus total cost and budget authorizations.
- Keep faculty, parents and community informed on the objectives and progress of your actions.

C. Recruit, select and hire a teacher coordinator(s) on a part-time or full-time basis, as needed. You will need to:

- Prepare a job description for the teacher coordinator, making sure that it meets all requirements of the state.
- Advertise widely your need for applicants.
- Evaluate each applicant on his ability to meet state requirements, plus such other personal characteristics as: his interest in youth; his commitment to the program; his capacity to work with other professional staff members; his ability to communicate with and gain the confidence of employers; his willingness to become an active member of the community.

Planning ALERT

Education of the Handicapped

There was a time, not so long ago, when the federal advocate for educating the nation's handicapped children and youth was a section chief, or a branch chief, in the U.S. Office of Education. He had relatively low status in the federal establishment.

Today, the U.S. Commissioner of Education himself has taken a role on behalf of the educational welfare of handicapped children. Sidney P. Marland Jr. is the first U.S. commissioner of education to declare that the education of the handicapped is a major priority in the United States. He has called for the development of a national goal "to provide full educational opportunities for every handicapped child in this country by 1980."

Marland has declared: "The right of a handicapped child to the special education he needs is as basic to him as is the right of any other young citizen to an appropriate education in public schools."

As first steps toward the big goal for this decade, three objectives would have to be reached during 1972:

- Enrollment of 100,000 handicapped youngsters of preschool age in federal, state and local educational institutions, as well as day care centers.
- Inclusion of an additional 250,000 school-age children in special education programs.
- Provision for career, placement and employment services for 250,000 teen-age handicapped students already receiving special education.

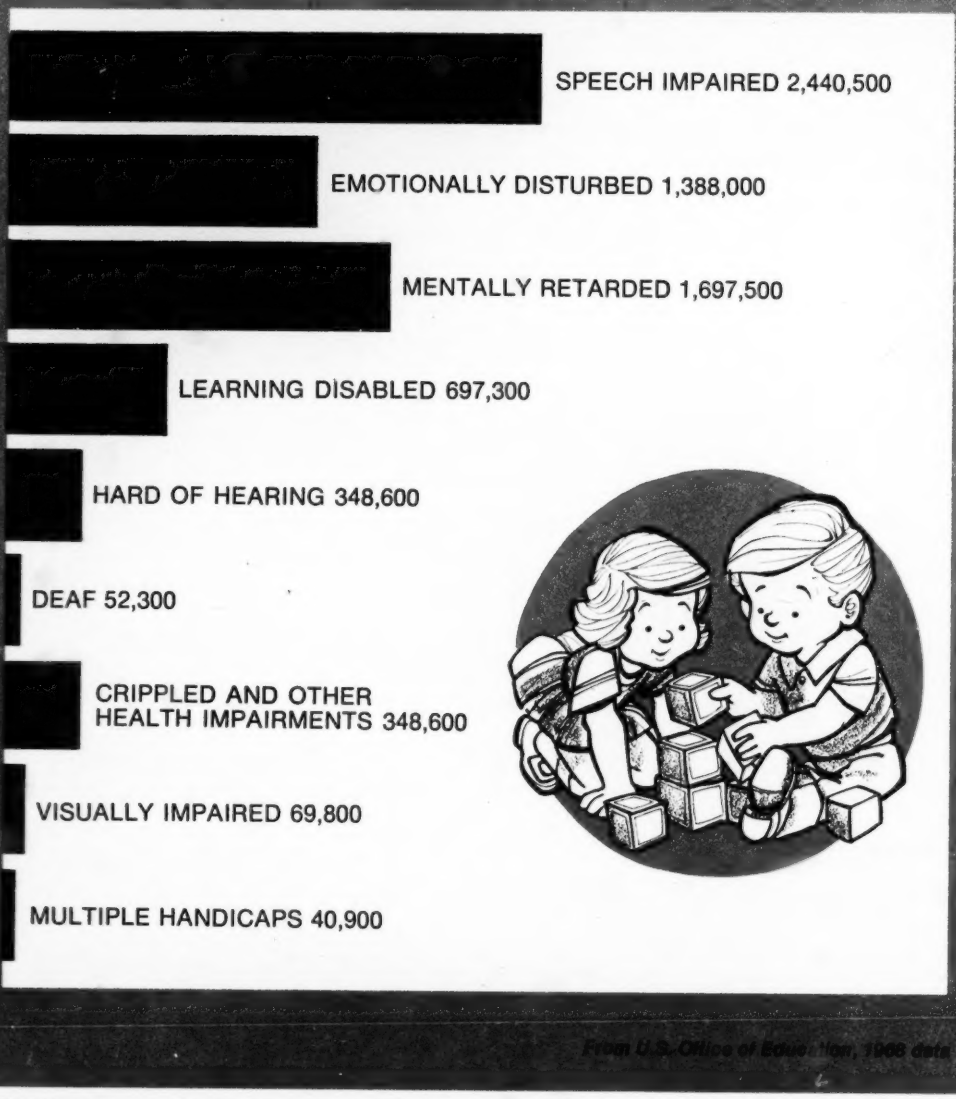
Even if the 1972 goal is attained, we would still be providing for only 3 million handicapped children--just about half the number in the United States who need special education.

Planning for All

When you plan for the handicapped, plan comprehensively, plan for all.

Federal officials often comment that local school district provisions for the handicapped are spotty, or are extended to selected categories of handicapped who may have "pressure groups" working on their behalf.

THE NATION'S 7 MILLION HANDICAPPED CHILDREN 1968



From U.S. Office of Education, 1968 data

Comprehensive planning requires a total view of the handicapped population.

Who are the handicapped? Federal and state laws cover a wide range of individuals under various definitions of the term "handicapped." Here is an unofficial, but commonly agreed upon, series of categories of handicapped children eligible to receive special education services:

Mentally retarded--persons whose mental development is impaired to the extent that the individual is unable to take part in regular school activities. Included in this group are the educable mentally retarded and the trainable mentally retarded.

Seriously emotionally disturbed--persons having psychiatric disturbance, without clearly defined physical cause or structural damage to the brain, which limits the individual's ability to govern his own behavior. The disturbance of children in this category is of such severity as to require special services in their education.

Learning disabled--persons with learning dysfunctions which prevent them from participating in a regular classroom. Children in this category may exhibit disorders of listening, thinking, talking, reading, writing, spelling and arithmetic. Such conditions may be caused by perceptual handicaps, brain injury, dyslexia or developmental aphasia. Federal officials stress: the learning disabled do not include children whose learning problems are due primarily to visual, hearing or motor handicaps, to mental retardation, emotional disturbances, or to economic or family disadvantage.

Crippled--persons with orthopedic impairments, including those existing at birth (club-foot or absence of some body member); damage caused by some disease, such as polio, bone tuberculosis, encephalitis; neurological impairment, such as that caused by cerebral palsy; and injuries caused by accidents.

Hard of hearing--persons whose sense of hearing functions, with or without aids, but whose hearing loss is of such severity as to require special education services.

Deaf--persons unable to hear language with or without the use of amplification.

Speech impaired--persons with serious interferences in oral communication resulting from stuttering, cleft palate or speech and voice problems.

Visually handicapped--persons whose inability to see or difficulty in seeing brings them into the categories of the blind, legally blind, partially sighted and visually impaired.

Other health impaired. Finally, there is a category of persons with health handicaps who require special educational services. Included are children impaired by asthma, rheumatic fever, epilepsy, diabetes, cardiac disease, and by conditions resulting from chronic illness.

Classification Code

There may be some minor differences in the way handicapping conditions are categorized in different states and, perhaps, by your own district specialists. However, the major groupings are outlined above; and officials frequently use the following code in designating the categories:

C--Crippled
ED--Seriously emotionally disturbed
HH--Hard of hearing
MR--Mentally retarded
SI--Speech impaired
VI--Visually handicapped
D--Deaf
EMR--Educable mentally retarded
LD--Learning disabilities
OHI--Other health impairment
TMR--Trainable mentally retarded

What percentage of the student enrollment needs special education services? Nationally, about 10% of the school-age children and youth are sufficiently handicapped to require special programs. Once this was felt to be a generous estimate. Today it is considered conservative. The reason? The number of children who show behavioral and emotional problems is growing. We are also discovering large groups of children with learning disabilities.

Those who view the pattern of special education from Washington see wide variations among the states and inequities for the handicapped. Some states report that fewer than 20% of their handicapped children are in special education programs. Only one state reports what is the maximum--75% of the handicapped children enrolled in special education. This means: if a child lives in one community he is four times more likely to receive assistance than if he lives in another community across a state line.

Remedies for such inequities--and coverage for a larger percentage of the handicapped--can come only through one avenue: expansion of special education programming at the local school district level, with the cooperation of the state education agency.

Three Federal Laws

Most of the federal support for the education of the handicapped comes from the authority of three laws:

- The Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA)--P.L. 91-230
- The Elmentary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)
- The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968.

What EHA Does

The Education of the Handicapped Act (strictly speaking, an amendment of Title VI of the old ESEA) is an omnibus measure. Overall, its purpose is to set up a system of grants to the state and local school authorities to support the training of personnel needed for the handicapped, promote research and make available media and materials to advance interests of the handicapped.

One of the most important sections of the Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA) is popularly known as Part B. It is Part B which sets up the system of grants to states "to assist them in the initiation, improvement and expansion of educational and related services for handicapped children at the preschool, elementary and secondary school levels."

Other parts of EHA:

- Provide support for centers and services for deaf-blind children and for early childhood education (Part C).
- Authorize grants to colleges and universities, state departments of education and other institutions for the training of personnel (Part D).
- Authorize research and demonstration projects, including those in physical education and recreation for handicapped children (Part I).
- Provide captioned films and other media for the advancement of handicapped persons (Part F).
- Authorize research, training and model centers for the improvement of education of children with learning disabilities (Part G).

The administrative machinery for the act is the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, within the U.S. Office of Education (USOE). Edwin W. Martin, associate commissioner, is the Bureau's chief officer. His address: Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U.S. Office of Education, 7th and D Streets SW, Washington, D.C. 20202. Phone: 202-963-5925.

What ESEA Does

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act, under Title I, provides funds for the support of children in state-operated or state-supported schools for the handicapped.

More important to local school administrators, however, is Title III of ESEA which makes grants for innovative and exemplary projects for the educational improvement of the handicapped. By law, 15% of a state's total Title III allotment must go for such projects.

What the Vocational Education Amendments Do

Again by statutory dictate, 10% of a state's basic allotment under the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 (Part B) must go for the provision of career education, placement and employment services for the handicapped.

Administration in Washington: While Title III projects and career services are under the administrative supervision of USOE's Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education and USOE's Bureau of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education, respectively, there is close cooperation in Washington between these two bureaus and the Bureau for the Education of the Handicapped.

The federal contribution for the education of handicapped children and youth is about 3% of what the nation as a whole is spending for this purpose. Another yardstick is that the U.S. government contributes only about $30 per handicapped child. Assoc. Comr. Edwin Martin has pointed out that the federal government can best use the federal dollar to stimulate the states and local governments to increase their levels of support.

Federal officials are optimistic about the trands for the future. They recall that in 1967 federal contributions totaled only $50 million--and have been rising. They are confident this upward trend will continue. How far and how fast may well depend upon the interest and leadership of state and local authorities--and upon the public's understanding of the needs of the handicapped.

Officials in Washington have observed that the federal dollar for the handicapped will have an important "multiplier strategy" if it involves: Detailed planning by local districts; adequate, or increased, financial support by local districts; emphasis on public information by local districts.

Careers for the Handicapped: Six Programs

The majority of handicapped persons can be trained to become productive and income-earning. This fact is not generally known or appreciated. The public often sees the handicapped in terms of stereotypes--the most severely retarded child, the most critically disturbed, the most helpless cripple--special education is considered a type of kindly busy work or baby sitting.

Extreme cases, however, represent only 5% to 10% of the handicapped population. The large majority can receive training, and for them career education is as real a prospect as career education for all other Americans. Following are six case studies showing how school systems provide training opportunities for different categories of handicapped youth. In looking at the patterns of practical training shown in these cases, note such features as:

- The capacity of the mentally handicapped to function in a great variety of occupations.
- The importance of involving and working with a number of federal, state and local agencies.
- The real possibility of tapping and using funds from a number of sources --government, nonprofit groups and industry.
- The possibility of interdistrict cooperation and support.
- The emphasis on academic as well as vocational goals.
- The use of audiovisual techniques and of teacher aides.

Denver Public Schools
Denver, Colo.

Number and type of students: 248 (educable mentally retarded, hard of hearing, visually handicapped)

The Work Experience and Study Program for handicapped students in the Denver Public School System provides a continuum of services from the elementary school level through senior high school. The program is conducted

through the cooperation of Goodwill Industries, the State Dept. of Social Services, the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation and the State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education.

Students at the elementary level receive prevocational experience. When they reach junior high school, emphasis is placed upon academics, social and occupational living. At this stage, students are provided with in-school work experience under supervision, as well as out-of-school work experiences before and after school.

The senior high level students are provided with a three-phase program. Phase I (10th grade) stresses academic areas and a special opportunity for work experience within the high school setting. Evaluation is conducted during this phase in order to further determine each student's vocational aptitude and interest.

Phase II (11th grade) becomes more occupational in nature than academic. Students spend part of their school day in a work experience program, either work-training or part-time employment. An example is the program at Boettcher High School. Here, orthopedically handicapped students are provided with training in data processing and business machine operation within the school setting.

Finally, during Phase III (12th grade), students are placed in full-time training situations, which lead to full-time job placement.

Fullerton Union High School District
Fullerton, Calif.

Number and type of students: 171 (educable mentally retarded and orthopedically handicapped)

"Project Worker" is a work study program for mentally retarded, educationally and orthopedically handicapped students, developed with local, state and federal funds.

The project's purpose is to make the handicapped worker's skills more salable to an employer by training him according to the employer's needs.

A work experience counselor solicits local community businesses for participation in Project Worker. After acceptance, he surveys for suitable job stations. When the work station is selected, the work experience counselor writes a job analysis consisting of the following items: aptitude profile, interest rating, temperament conditions, working conditions, physical requirements, job description and task analysis.

A unique aspect of Project Worker's training plan is to videotape work stations in industry, showing the work performed in detail. The videotape reels are edited, narrated and distributed throughout 19 different classes at eight campus locations. A full-time educational television technician works under the direction of a work-study coordinator for the purpose of making and maintaining a bank of videotapes which are available for use by the individual teachers within the district.

Since handicapped students often lack motivation and usually learn more quickly by a "hands on" example than by abstractions, a mock-up or simulation of the work station is created in the school. After an initial orientation period, the student learns to apply what he sees and hears on the videotaped program to what he is required to do on his simulated work station. When the teacher sees that the student is performing on a level commensurate with that demonstrated on the videotape, he then videotapes the student performing his tasks on the mock-up. This tape is then taken to the employer and he observes the student on television. He is then invited to compare this tape with the original tape of the normal employe.

If Project Worker accomplishes its goal, the employer will request that the student come in and be interviewed for the position. After placement, the student is closely supervised on the job, and his work experience is integrated into the school curriculum.

Thirty-one companies participated in Project Worker in 1970. Among these were regular and drive-in restaurants, service stations, motels,a supermarket, a department store, a manufacturer of business forms, radiator service, tire sales, an engine rebuilder, a marble company and a manufacturer of medical and chemical instruments.

Among the many job stations available to the students are assembler, waitress, food preparer, dining room hostess, salesman, maid, bakery helper, mold maker, nurse's aide, service station attendant, secretary, engine mechanic, cook and counter man.

East Metropolitan Special Education Council
St. Paul, Minn.

Number and type of students: 90 (educable mentally retarded, learning disabled)

"Project Serve" is an inter-district cooperative work experience program for handicapped youth, ages 14 to 21. This effort is a result of lack of resources in separate districts to meet the needs of handicapped students. It is based upon a cooperative arrangement for coordinated services with vocational education, special education and vocational rehabilitation at both the local and state levels, and between other agencies such as Manpower, Welfare and employer and civic groups.

The project served educable mentally retarded students in five districts in the St. Paul area during 1970. It may be expanded to serve 12 districts. Three kinds of educational services are made available to handicapped pupils:

1. Placement in "regular" classes with age-mates for as much of every school day as possible.

2. Provision of a Supplemental Resource Room with equipment and material which are appropriate to the development of those skills which are least well provided for in the regular classroom.

3. Help to pupils (during junior and senior year) to find part-time employment coordinated with the pupils' high school academic program.

A major component of Project Serve is the teacher/job coordinator. His duties include job training, placement, follow-up and interpretation of the program to civic groups, parents and employers.

A large part of the teacher/job coordinator's work involves obtaining employment for the students and interpreting to employers their abilities and limitations.

Every employer signs a job training agreement with the school. This agreement is also signed by the teacher/job coordinator, trainee, principal of the high school and parents.

The teacher/job coordinator endeavors to give trainees a series of job experiences so that they will not be limited to one area. Frequent visits by the teacher/job coordinator to employer and trainee are made to promote a better understanding of employer and trainee objectives and problems. During the second half of the senior year, efforts are made to place the students in jobs which will lead to permanent placement after graduation.

Special Needs Program
Genesee Area Vocational Center
Flint, Mich.

Number and type of students: 76
(educable mentally retarded, seriously emotionally disturbed, deaf, hard of hearing)

The Special Needs Program was established to provide handicapped and disadvantaged students from high schools in Genesee County an opportunity to learn occupational skills. The program is in its second year of operation, and provides part-time prevocational and vocational training to handicapped students.

Areas of training: auto body and engine mechanics, beauty culture, office occupations, welding, plant maintenance, landscaping and floriculture, graphic arts, and health occupations.

The program makes use of student and volunteer aides in three ways:

1. Teacher aides are regular high school students who provide individual instruction for the Special Needs Program students in the regular classroom.

2. Instructional aides are provided by the vocational counselors of the four Flint high schools and paid through the work experience and work study programs. These are students who are enrolled in the regular Skill Center classes during the day, and who have been recommended by their teachers as having adequate proficiency in given subject areas to be of assistance to the Special Needs students.

3. Volunteer aides are provided by the General Motors Institute.

Student evaluations are sent to the home school every 10 weeks, in coordination with the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation district office. Evaluation questionnaires to parents, counselors and the home-school teachers request information on student improvements in work and social skills.

Support for this program comes from State Dept. of Education Divisions of Vocational and Technical Education, Vocational Rehabilitation, and Special Education, a grant from the Genesee Intermediate School District, and "in-kind" allowances from the Genesee Area Skill Center.

Kershaw Area Vocational Center
Camden, S.C.

Number and type of students: 65
(educable mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed)

This is a prevocational program for handicapped students who are not making adequate progress in the regular program. It is known as "Trades and Crafts," or TAC. Its objective is to qualify handicapped students for employment in such jobs as construction helpers, service station attendants, welders and industrial sewing operators.

The students rotate between academic and vocational classes, spending one-half day in each. The academic teacher relates math, English and economics to the lab or shop experiences of the students. The vocational "Trades and Crafts" instructors teach a cluster of units associated with a family of occupations.

Since the program is designed to prepare the students in specific skill areas and is being coordinated with specific employers, it is anticipated that many of the students will be placed in jobs when they complete their training.

The instructors will assist the guidance counselor in a follow-up survey of student progress at periodic intervals ranging up to three years after employment. Comparison will be made of the dropout rate of students in the program to that of students not in the program.

Mt. Blue High School
Farmington, Maine

Number and type of students: 20
(educable mentally retarded)

Below is a description of the first year of a work-experience program for educable mentally retarded students at Mt. Blue High School.

The program provides five laboratories in which students receive training and evaluation to assist them in the development of general work skills:

1. The laundry area is designed and equipped to train students for employment in a small laundry such as is found in private homes, nursing homes and apartments. In this area students operate basic laundry equipment and gain firsthand experience in the care of clothing and textiles.

2. The motel area is very similar to a room found in most modern motels. Students learn cleaning and maintenance skills. They are then given the opportunity to apply their skills to actual work experiences in local motels.

3. The nursing area is equipped with the materials and equipment found in nursing homes and hospitals. Students learn to use the equipment and care for sick and elderly people as training to be a worker in a nursing home or as a nurse's aide.

4. The personal services area has individual lockers containing materials for personal hygiene and appearance. Students use this area to make themselves presentable for work in the other laboratory areas. Students also receive supervision in self-care and personal grooming. Other subjects covered are child care, first aid and the use of leisure time.

5. The food service laboratory is a small restaurant which the students operate on a commercial basis. The students prepare the food and do the serving.

The food services laboratory, coupled with the personal services area, has provided some remarkable changes in the students involved. They are more conscious of hygiene and appearance, more confident, sociable and relaxed with people.

Useful Reference Work

A national listing of state officials responsible for administering programs for handicapped children is contained in Directory of Special Education Personnel in State Education Agencies. It was prepared "to aid and encourage communication among friends of the handicapped." Available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Price: $1.

Your Directory for Assistance

Local administrators having questions about special education which need answers from Washington should address inquiries to the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (see p. 71). Nearly all such inquiries, however, can be answered by the state director of special education and his associates and by primary administrators of state-federal programs for the handicapped. You may wish to fill in their names below, from information supplied by your state.

SPECIAL EDUCATION

State Director of Special Education
Name_____ Title_____

Address_____ Phone_____

Consultant for_____
Name_____ Title_____

Address_____ Phone_____

Consultant for_____
Name_____ Title_____

Address_____ Phone_____

STATE-FEDERAL PROGRAMS FOR THE HANDICAPPED

Part B, EHA, Assistance to States
Name_____ Title_____

Address_____ Phone_____

P.L. 89-313, Title I, ESEA, State Programs
Name_____ Title_____

Address_____ Phone_____

Part D, EHA, Training Programs
Name_____ Title_____

Address_____ Phone_____

Title III, ESEA, Innovating Programs
Name_____ Title_____

Address_____ Phone_____

P.L. 90-756, Vocational Education
Name_____ Title_____

Address_____ Phone_____

Curriculum *Advisory

Environmental Education Is Urgency No. 1

When federal officials take up the subject of environmental education they call it "Urgency No. 1" and the "education that cannot wait." Momentum for this fast-spreading phase of instruction and curriculum originated with "home town" schools, Washington officials admit. But they are now set up to encourage the further development of courses and programs with funds, information-in-substance and exchange of successful practices.

The first practical step taken by the federal government has been the injection of federal funds for model projects--coordinated by USOE's newly created Office of Environmental Education, established under the Environmental Education Act of 1970.

The Office of Environmental Education is a source of consultative and technical assistance for local school districts as they become more deeply involved in environmental education. It also makes grants to schools, museums, ecology centers, libraries, colleges and universities.

What do federal specialists consider vital components of an effective environmental education program? The following elements are being recommended to local school authorities in planning programs.

- Project should be people-centered rather than resource-centered.
- With the majority of our people now living in metropolitan rather than rural areas, environmental education should be concerned as much with city as with open country problems.
- Whatever type of activity is carried out, the students should be actively involved--from planning through evaluation.
- Learning through discovery, inquiry and problem solving is another dynamic aspect of environmental education.
- Activities and discussions should center on the relationships of living organisms to the various elements of their environments or ecosystems.
- Learning experiences should take place out of doors, as much as possible.

- Involved in the program should be environmental specialists (naturalists, rangers, marine scientists, ecologists, etc.), staff members of environmental agencies and officials of local government, industry and labor.

- A natural way to develop environmental education projects and programs is to begin with the immediate environments in which the students live.

- Students should accept responsibility for some aspects of environmental quality, through opportunities to exert control over their environment at home, at school, in the neighborhood and in the larger community.

- Students should have opportunities to learn about more distant environments, those of other communities and countries. International aspects of environmental problems and quality should be introduced at appropriate levels and situations.

Two Major Curriculum Objectives

Although each local curriculum should be unique, growing as naturally out of the local situation as do local flora and fauna, some goals can be kept in mind. Authorities urge that local curriculum committees keep these principals before them:

Preschool and Elementary: Emphasis should be given to increasing the child's appreciation of the relationships between man and nature, and a general appreciation of nature and pressing environmental problems.

Secondary: A more sophisticated understanding of ecological systems may be emphasized at this level, especially the relationships of man to his total environment. The student should develop an increased awareness of the social, political and economic causes of environmental problems. He should also develop at this age an understanding of the various options for remedying problems of pollution, waste of resources and overpopulation.

Environmental Encounters: At the Heart of Learning

An environmental encounter is a personal experience with some aspect of the environment--in a situation of challenge--and where a decision must be made, USOE officials stress. The encounter is at the core of the new environmental education. Good environmental education is active rather than passive. It takes place mostly outside of rather than within school walls. It involves decision making and problem solving on the part of the student, rather than memory work, recitation or referring to encyclopedias.

What Can Schools Do? Model Projects Point the Way

Which approaches are working in environmental education? Can school administrators develop programs that educate not only the school population but the entire community as well? Can environmental programs change the behavior and attitudes of teachers, students, parents and other citizens toward

pollution of our environment? Some of these goals are being reached--in dynamic environmental education projects, supported by U.S. funds. Their activities and accomplishments may serve as guides and idea stimulators for all school administrators and planners. Many of their activities can be adapted by other districts, without the necessity of federal funds. In some of the projects, entire communities are involved--some up to their necks in comtroversy and change spurred by student activities. Here are some of them:

1. Students Work on New Curriculum

In Atlanta, Ga., 10th- and 11th-grade students are working under contract with teachers on a curriculum development program. Each quarter, individual students select an environmental problem to study. During that time, each student can forget about rigid school periods or examinations. Instead, under the guidance of a teacher team, he is given maximum freedom to pursue his own investiattion of his problem. His culminating activity is gathering and organizing his findings for the development of a new curriculum in environmental education for local elementary and secondary schools. He receives full academic credit in science, social science, communications skills and mathematics during that quarter. Students also present their findings to groups of elementary children and to groups of parents, informing them of the seriousness of the problem and some alternative solutions to it.

2. Multidisciplinary Approach Is Developed

"It's a very conservative community, but the program there is terrific," said an environmental education consultant about the project in East Syracuse-Minoa (N.Y.) School District. "It shows you don't have to start a forest fire to get a great program going." To introduce ecological concepts into its elementary schools, the district is developing multidisciplinary courses based on environmental problems--instead of integrating ecological concepts into existing courses. Three curriculum units are being developed for the elementary and middle school grades, with individual student and team research projects encouraged throughout. Units will range from early orientation and recognition of ecology in lower grades to an investigative approach in upper grades.

3. Students Study Local Water Supply

Students and teachers in three Manchester, N.H., high schools are studying the Massabesic Lake and Merrimac River, sources of the city's water supply. Their involvement in water testing and pollution control has aroused interest and activism by the entire community. Students collect water samples and examine them in science labs. Teachers and students write reports and make maps and graphs, which they condense into fact sheets and other curriculum materials. Students are selected for the project without regard for grades.

Community action symposiums are held using materials and presentations developed by the students. "The main theme of this project is social ecology --bringing the problem to civic clubs and church groups and to the public

For More Information

Curriculum committees and faculty groups developing plans for environmental education courses should write to the following federal agencies for information and materials:

Air Pollution Control Office
Environmental Protection Agency
Parklawn Building, Room 17B17
5600 Fishers Lane
Rockville, Md. 20853

Bureau of Outdoor Recreation
Division of Information
U.S. Dept. of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20240

Bureau of Sport Fisheries
and Wildlife
Office of Conservation Education
U.S. Dept. of Health,
Education and Welfare
Washington, D.C. 20204

Environmental Health Service
Office of Public Affairs
U.S. Dept. of Health, Education
and Welfare
Washington, D.C. 20204

Forest Service
Information Division
U.S. Dept. of Agriculture
Washington, D.C. 20250

Office of Public Affairs
Environmental Protection Agency
Washington, D.C. 20460

Soil Conservation Service
Information and Education Division
U.S. Dept. of Agriculture
Washington, D.C. 20250

U.S. Geological Survey
U.S. Dept. of the Interior
Washington, D.C. 20242

Useful to planners of environmental education projects:

The New Environmental Education Program of the U.S. Office of Education, a 14-page brochure describing the kinds of public school projects which will promote the quality of the environment. Order from the Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. 30¢. Stock #1780-0889.

Handbook on Preparing Proposals Under the Environmental Education Act is available free. Write to Office of Environmental Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202. Phone: (202) 962-7807 or 962-1587.

generally by means of TV and radio," reported a federal official after visiting Manchester. "Students keep diaries of their activities: field trips, lab work, group sessions, preparation of films and videotapes for showing to community groups. They also prepare complete road shows: posters, films, slides, recordings, which they take to area schools, as well as to public officials and civic groups." Final task of the project will be to write a curriculum guide on environmental education, which will be a cooperative venture between the Manchester Public School System and St. Anselm's College.

Washington *Alert

Preventing Suicides Among Children: What Schools Can Do

The rate of suicides among children and youth is of growing concern to educators. To get background on this condition, and to hear what schools, teachers and administrators are in a a position to do in crises of this sort, the editors of the PLANNER addressed a number of questions to Dean Schuyler, M.D., staff psychiatrist, Center for Studies of Suicide Prevention, National Institute of Mental Health. His responses follow. The material contained on these pages does not necessarily reflect the official position of the National Institute of Mental Health, the Health Services and Mental Health Administration, or the Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare.

Q. Could you indicate the depth and general nature of the suicide problem in this country today?

A. In America, 25,000 people died by suicide last year; an additional 250,000 made suicide attempts--and among these were a disturbing number of school children. Self-destructive behaviors take many forms other than evident suicide attempts and obviously suicidal deaths. Many one-car accidents, when road conditions are good, may be suicide. In some ghetto cultures in which murder is seen as masculine and active, and suicide is seen as feminine and passive, one adolescent may provoke another with a lethal weapon to kill him. This, too, is a form of suicide. The juvenile diabetic who discontinues his insulin or overdoses himself is another example. The statistics, which may be alarming in themselves, are surely underestimates.

Q. Why is suicide a challenge for the educator?

A. Largely because teachers and principals occupy such an important position in the worlds of their students. In the early grades, contact with one's teacher may be greater than with one's parents. A patient teacher, willing to listen, who forms an acceptable role model is often sought out by the student and entrusted with his problems. When a student approaches you and asks for help in dealing with a suicidal crisis, it is important that you listen, respond supportively and know at what point and in which direction to look for resources to provide additional help.

Q. Is there any way a teacher or principal can identify a potential suicide?

A. One authority has recently enumerated several clues for the teacher to recognize potentially self-destructive youth. These include:

- The child's inability to communicate with parents.
- Giving away a prized possession.
- Becoming more morose and isolated than usual.
- A sudden decrease in general efficiency and in school work.
- Recent involvement with drugs.
- "Accidental" self-poisoning.
- Living in a home in which child abuse is suspected.
- Evidence of desire for revenge with parents.

Q. Is it likely that a student with self-destructive tendencies might openly reveal them to the teacher or principal?

A. The student may come to the teacher or principal in several guises. His statement, "I feel like killing somebody" may represent a covert suicidal communication. Requests for information ("I have a friend who wants to know....") may mask the questioner's personal involvement. The suicidal youth may ask: "How many aspirins does one need to kill oneself?"

Q. Once a student has seen fit to talk to a teacher or other staff member about his suicidal feelings, what type of response should the adult make?

A. Listen with an ear to understanding the feelings of the child. Do not dismiss or undervalue what you are being told. Evaluate the seriousness of the suicidal crisis. (Does the youth talk about a planned method? Does he have the means to carry it out?) Evaluate the child's own resources (his personal strengths) and those of his environment (parents, peer group friends, adults in whom he can confide). Ask about his suicidal thoughts, if they have not been clearly enumerated to you. Don't worry about precipitating suicidal behavior by this inquiry. Encourage the child to talk with you, being supportive, but firm in your responses.

Q. What are the resources available to school people for assistance?

A. Within your immediate system, the person to turn to is the school counselor, the school physician or the school psychiatrist. It is desirable to personally introduce the child to one of these. When you leave the scene, you should assure the child that you will continue to be available to him in the future--but tell him you feel his immediate needs are more in the realm of the counselor, doctor or psychiatrist.

Q. What sources outside the school system are available?

A. There are more than 200 Suicide Prevention Centers (S.P.C.) in the United States. When you feel that professional help outside the school system is needed, these centers represent the best available resource for dealing with suicidal problems. The telephone directories in large communities usually list the number of these facilities in the front of the book, along with police, fire and other emergency numbers. Or ask the phone operator to locate the nearest suicide prevention center. In areas with no S.P.C., a Community Mental Health Center will often provide patient care or will be able to direct you to the appropriate local agency. Finally, any hospital emergency room with psychiatric services is an appropriate resource for professional help in evaluating a suicidal patient. Phone numbers of these facilities should be made available in offices of the principal and school health personnel.

Planning *Advisory

Using Census Data In School Administration

Facts, facts, facts are the indisputable requirements for educational planners and school administrators. There is no ampler, richer and more authentic source of facts in the United States than that developed by the U.S. government through its Census Bureau.

When you combine Census Bureau data with facts generated by your state and local district, you get a powerful combination of tools which can help solve recurring problems in school administration as well as attack problems bursting upon the scene with unexpected suddenness.

Here, for example, are operational problems where census and locally generated data could be of assistance:

- A school district must determine what amount of busing would be required to achieve a level of integration required by the courts or by board policy.
- The vocational education department wants to find out what new types of career courses to introduce during the next budgetary period.
- Fights between black and white students suddenly grow in frequency in a once stable neighborhood.
- The board of education appoints a committee to acquire sites for future school construction with instructions to locate schools "in the developing" parts of the community.
- Adult education officials, with limited budgets, must decide what kind of courses would be of greatest value to the adult populations in different neighborhoods.

Such a list of specifics can be run into great lengths. Turn then, to categories of problems: census facts plus local data may be applied effectively to:

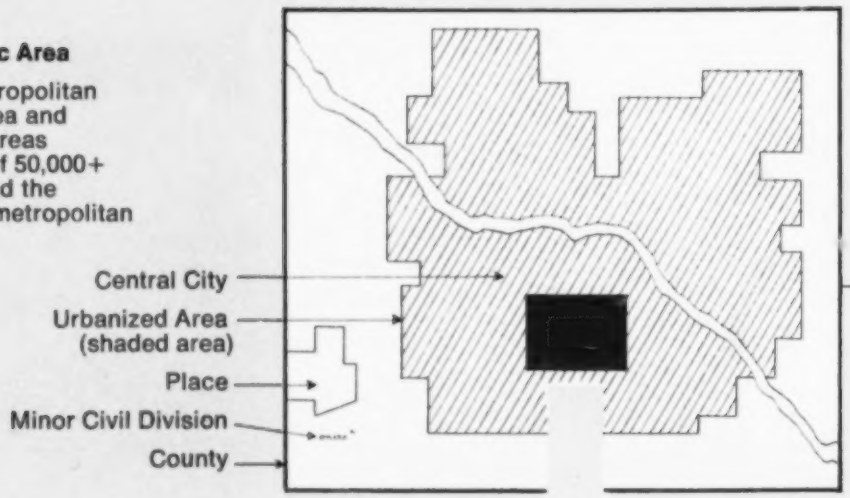
- Planning redistricting of schools.
- Reducing racial tensions in schools and neighborhoods.
- Revising and developing curriculum offerings to meet community needs.

CENSUS FACTS

Geographic Areas from Which Data Are Gathered

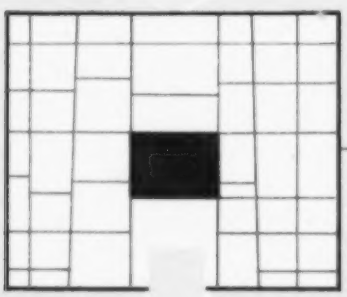
1. Geographic Area

Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area and Component Areas (central city of 50,000+ population and the surrounding metropolitan county(s).



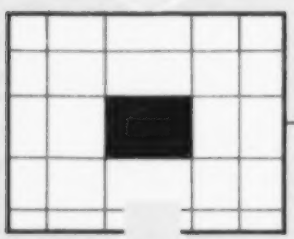
2. Census Tract

Small, homogeneous, relatively permanent area; all SMSA's are entirely tracted.



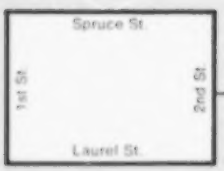
3. Block Group or Enumeration District

Subdivisions of census tracts, places, and minor civil divisions.



4. The Block

Identified in all urbanized areas and some selected areas.



Source: U.S. Census Bureau

- Planning for physical facilities.
- Coping with rapid population shifts.
- Justifying increases in school budgets.

In preparing applications for federal funds, and for participation in a number of federal assistance programs, the use of census data is a must. This is especially true for applications for Title I ESEA grants; school desegregation assistance; exemplary projects in vocational education and child nutrition programs.

Why the Increased Emphasis on Census Data?

Every hour 250 new births occur in the nation, and every year for the past 22 years there has been a 20% average mobility of the population--people moving from one dwelling to another. These day-to-day population changes and the technological explosions which create new communities, and transform others, are remaking the urban and rural map. They also remake the characteristics of elementary and secondary schools, and they alter drastically the social and economic foundations upon which the public school systems stand.

The nature of the changes, and the facts behind them, came to light during the 1970 census and are now being published in a continuing flow of reports. Almost daily, new documents pour off the presses of the U.S. Govt. Printing Office--a process which will continue for the rest of this year. Census data are also being placed on tapes--a medium which can bring new sources of help to schools at relatively low cost, as we shall point out later.

The information becoming available from the 1970 census is derived from either questions asked of the entire population or a sample of the population. The questions asked of everyone or about every housing unit are called 100% or complete-count questions. They concern age, sex, race, property value or rent, and number of rooms, among other data. This information is needed to count everyone accurately and to make possible the publication of some data for very small areas, such as city blocks. In addition, one household in every five throughout the country answered sample questions in addition to the 100% questions answered by everyone. These sample questions brought information about income, number of school years completed, occupation, place of work, school or college enrollment (public or private), vocational training completed, and presence and duration of a disability.

The regular tabulation program of the Census Bureau includes data summaries in printed reports and/or summary tapes for the following areas--listed according to diminishing size:

- United States, states and counties.
- Standard metropolitan statistical areas (SMSA's)--comprising a county containing a central city of 50,000 or more, plus adjacent counties socially and economically integrated with the central county. (This

definition of SMSA's does not apply to New England. Both 100% and sample data are reported for this area.

- Urbanized areas (UA's)--comprising a central city plus the surrounding closely settled urban fringe. Both 100% and sample data are reported.

- Unincorporated places--a concentration of population which is not incorporated. Only unincorporated places of 1,000 or more inhabitants are shown in the reports. Both 100% and sample data are reported.

- Census tracts--subdivisions of SMSA's, averaging 4,000 population, covering all 247 SMSA's identified for 1970. Both 100% and sample data are reported.

- Enumeration districts--administrative divisions set up by the Census Bureau to take the census in areas where enumerators were used, averaging 800 population. Only 100% data are reported.

- Block groups--groups of city blocks, averaging 1,000 population, which are the equivalent of enumeration districts in 145 of the large metropolitan areas where the census was taken by mail in 1970. Only 100% data are reported.

- Blocks--city blocks, generally rectangular areas bounded by four streets, defined in cities of 50,000 and over plus their suburbs, and in additional cities which contracted with the Census Bureau for block tabulations. Only 100% data are reported.

Three Documents for the School Administrator

The results of the 1970 census of population and housing--that is, who the Americans are, what they do, where they live--are being issued in printed reports, computer tapes, computer printouts and microfilm. The complete output will fill many a shelf. For the school administrator and his office staff, three volumes are probably indispensible:

1. Get the report entitled Number of Inhabitants--for your state (Series PC (1) A).

   This document will give you data on population of the state; population by size of place; by urban and rural residence; by what the Census Bureau calls standard metropolitan statistical areas (see illustration, page 27). It will also give you population figures for each town, for each incorporated place and for each unincorporated place. You may get more detail than you want, but should you want any detail about the inhabitants of any town in your state, you'll probably find it in this volume.

2. Get the report entitled General Population Characteristics--for your state (Series PC (1) B).

   Among the thousands of facts, indices and relationships, you will find information about race, age and the relationship of persons in the house-

hold to the "head of household"; their marital status; and a host of data about family characteristics. For any one city, town or other place in your state you will be able to get quickly the number of children under age one and the number of people from age one, year by year, to age 85 and over.

3. Also the report entitled General Social and Economic Characteristics --for your state (Series PC (1) C).

The range of data reported in this volume is wide--and the facts can be of greatest usefulness. Here, for example, are only a few of the tables of statistics for your state you'll find in this report:

- Poverty status of families and persons, by race and by urban and rural residence.
- Ethnic characteristics by size of place.
- Industry of employed persons, by size of place.
- Mobility, commuting and veterans' status, by metropolitan and nonmetropolitan residence.
- Employment characteristics of the Negro population; ditto for other major racial and ethnic groups in your state.

In short, whether it's questions of income, occupation, fertility, mobility, ethnic origin, educational attainments, veteran status or the last occupation of the unemployed--you'll find the facts in this volume. In a nutshell, all three selected volumes cited above offer demographic data, and socioeconomic data--the major types of information needed for application to school administration problems.

Local and State Data Are Also Important

Although census data are impressive in their variety and richness, they may not be enough by themselves in helping solve problems of administration.

Local- and state-generated data, from school agencies as well as from agencies outside the school, may also be necessary. School enrollment profiles, school transfer records, test results and health form data from your own district can be valuable. Other useful local data are property tax assessments, building permits and zoning change permits.

To illustrate: Financial data such as property values and revenues are often used as a basis for establishing taxes or tax rates or for increasing the school system's share of the revenue collected. Zoning changes permitting multiple-family dwellings in an area previously restricted to one-family units can alert the school planner to possible new school construction needs.

Your state capital may provide additional facts on town development, property values within the state and statewide changing patterns of industry. These data may prove useful in evaluating your potential tax revenue for school operations, determining the cost of an increased educational effort, and developing a basis from which to project future school-age population.

Help from Tape—And How To Get It

If your school district has access to a computer, your major source of help for applying census and other data may be your nearest Summary Tape Processing Center. Your state-supported college or university most likely has one such center on its campus. Here's a snapshot of these useful facilities:

Since 1969 the Bureau of the Census has recognized over 175 organizations (private, public, governmental and academic), as Summary Tape Processing Centers. New centers are added frequently to the recognized list.

The centers are not franchised, established or supported by the Bureau of the Census. Centers come into being through local initiative and respond to needs recognized by their organizers. The forms which centers assume, their purposes and the goals they strive to achieve are determined by the organizers of the centers. The mode of operation of each center is determined by the group organizing the center. Each processing center establishes its own cost structure of fees and may serve any interested client as it chooses.

Many of the Summary Tape Processing Centers are working with school systems on such problems as projecting future enrollments, establishing the number of school children to be bused to meet legal requirements for integration and helping school districts prepare the data needed to support applications for federal grants--where data are required about the numbers and characteristics of disadvantaged children, for example.

The centers are located in nearly every state (latest count showed 46 states having such centers). To get more information, and to arrange for services, write to Data Access and Use Laboratory, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. 20233, attention of Mr. Gary Young.

How To Get Census Data by School District

The geographical areas by which the Census Bureau gathers information do not always coincide with the boundary lines of a school district. Most school districts have different boundaries than the county, city or political unit for which census data are gathered. Yet school administrators would find most useful census data pertaining to the precise area in which his school district operates.

A solution to this problem requires grouping census area units (such as census tracts, minor civil division enumeration districts, block groups and blocks) into a school district area. This is a task of great magnitude, since there are 1.5 million blocks, 250,000 enumeration districts or block groups, 75,000 census tracts and minor civil divisions, and tens of thousands of these units are cut by school district boundaries.

USOE recently tackled this huge assignment. It developed a "conversion system" which permits tabulations of census facts by school district. This effort has thus far produced a series of state-by-state maps, magnetic tapes and microfilms, which record for each school district the data gathered in

the 1970 census. Prices for the materials range from $18 to $200. Write to the Central Users Service, Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. 20233. Phone: (202) 735-2000. Describe what your needs are with regard to the utilization of census data for school administration. You can then decide which of the available items you need to purchase.

If you want additional background information on obtaining census data by school districts, get in touch with William Dorfman, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202. Phone: (202) 963-5794. He had much to do with the difficult venture of matching census areas with school districts.

Dorfman points out that the materials produced thus far are only "a beginning." Additional kits of tools will become available in the months ahead. With these tools, it will become easier for a school district to get at basic data needed in school administration, such as:

- Community profiles, showing characteristics of young and old by race, sex, age, family status, educational attainment, occupation, income, employment status, value of housing.
- General characteristics of public school students, including language spoken at home and age/grade mix for race and income categories.
- Family characteristics of public school students including number of siblings, missing fathers, working mothers.
- Mobility of public school students on the basis of birthplace, place of residence five years ago and change of residence in the preceding year.
- Characteristics of teachers or former teachers who are resident in the community.
- Dropout characteristics ranging from parental characteristics to race, sex, ethnic and marital status.
- Comparison of 4- to 6-year-old population in school with those not in school.
- Comparison of parochial, private independent and public school students with respect to race, socioeconomic status.
- Employment, occupational and income status of those who have taken vocational courses.

Washington *Q and A

Doing More For the Gifted And Talented

The U.S. Office of Education (USOE) has sent to Congress a two-volume report entitled Education of the Gifted and Talented. Educators have recognized it as a blueprint for improving the education of "one of our most neglected and potentially productive groups of students." It is of practical use to curriculum committees, special education leaders and school administrators. As a service to school districts, the National School Public Relations Assn. reprinted the text of Volume I in a special document (Education of the Gifted and Talented, #411-12806; 72p; $4). The material below is based on the text of the report.

Who are the gifted and talented?

Approximately 1.5 million school-age children are gifted and talented. Researchers believe they can identify gifted and talented children at a very young age through individual testing. Giftedness has been found in all walks of life, although environmental factors make it more difficult to identify the gifted from minorities and divergent cultures. As expected, the gifted perform at academic levels far ahead of their age mates, but they also are more advanced in their talents, interests and psychological maturity.

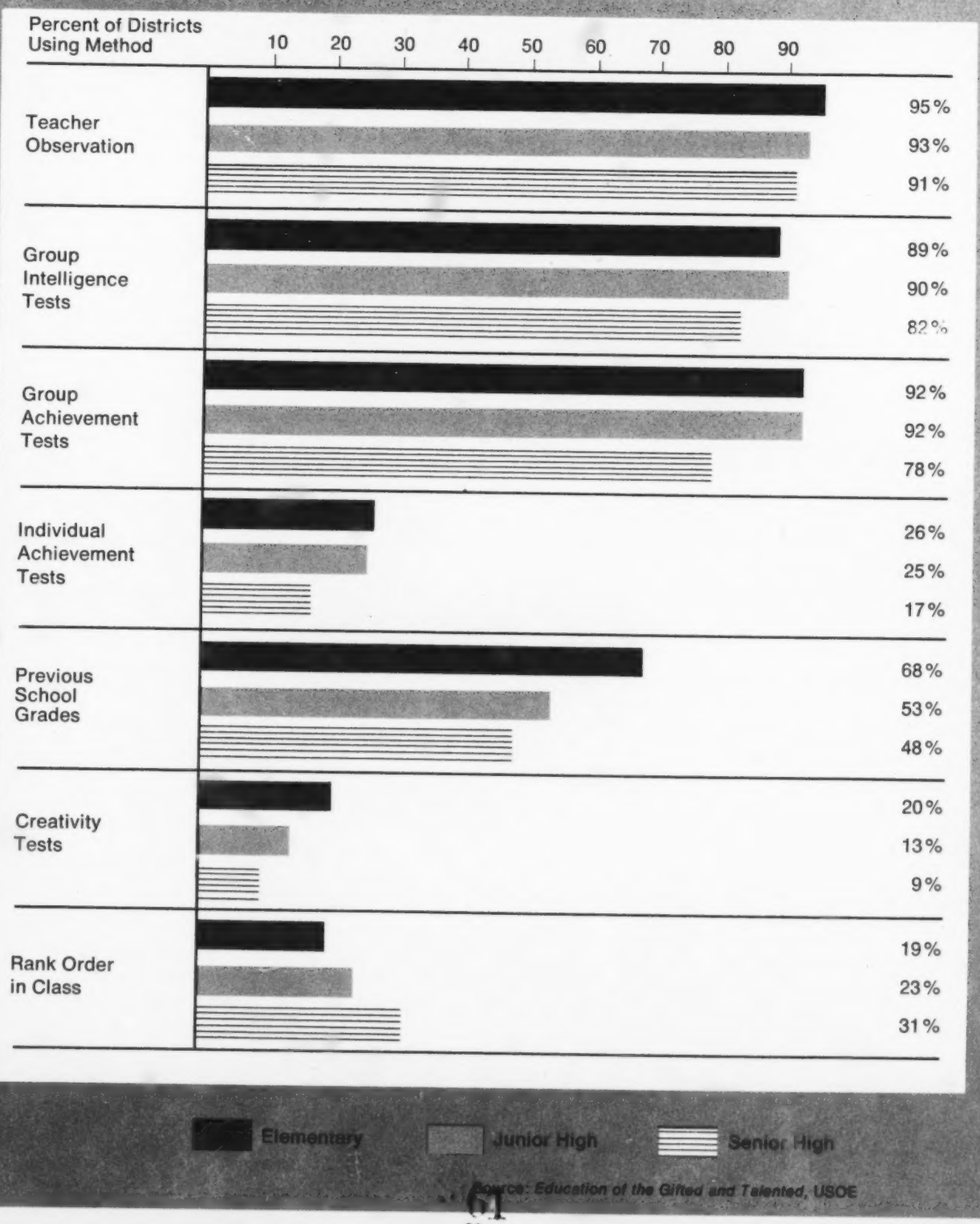
What is the status of school programs for the gifted and talented?

According to USOE surveys, the majority of those recognized as gifted receive scant attention at best. One-third or more of the known gifted receive no special instruction. The majority of gifted children are taught in regular classrooms, whose teachers rarely have time to devote extra effort to their very able students. (Only a few large cities provide special classes for the gifted.) Most identified, gifted children receive little or no attention at the elementary school level, while the programs at the secondary level consist mainly of separate part-time classes.

Why should gifted children get special attention?

If democratic education means schooling opportunities appropriate to one's ability, then the gifted and talented generally are being shortchanged, resulting in a waste of human talent. Contrary to widespread belief, these students cannot ordinarily grow toward their potential without special assistance. Placed in unchallenging school situations, which sometimes are even

Seven Ways To Identify the Gifted Student



Source: *Education of the Gifted and Talented*, USOE

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hostile toward the behavior of the talented, they frequently tend to conceal their giftedness and bury their abilities in underachievement.

Can local schools provide adequately for the gifted and talented?

Under certain conditions, the public schools can competently provide for gifted and talented students.

The conditions? A school must have educational plans based upon the needs and interests of the pupil. It must allow for flexibility in scheduling individual students. The students must have access to needed resources regardless of location and must have suitable teachers and adult resource persons, whether they possess credentials or not. The administrator of the school must be fully aware of the gifted and their needs, and the faculty must be trained to identify and help them. Parents must be closely involved in the programs. A special consultant assigned to the gifted should be available to provide inservice and direct assistance to teachers, administrators and parents.

What facilities should support a good program?

Additional capital expenditures for the gifted and talented will be wasted without the intelligent use of facilities and materials. Schools in urban areas should draw upon libraries and laboratories outside of, as well as in, school buildings. Special transportation funds should be available for study and research opportunities (e.g., archaeological studies, gathering of specimens for laboratory work, contact with artists). Budgets for instructional media and materials should be adequate and take into consideration the predictable--and unpredictable--needs of the gifted.

What kinds of teachers are needed?

Preparation of teachers to work with the gifted is an important priority. The need for special training is imperative. Teachers with no special background for training the gifted have been found disinterested in, and even hostile toward, the gifted. Some teachers believe the only extra attention the gifted need is "additional work." Inservice programs to help all teachers appreciate the gifted can do much to assure better opportunities for them. Generally, successful teachers of the gifted are interested in scholarly and artistic pursuits, have wide interests, a sense of humor, are student-centered, are enthusiastic about teaching and recognize the need for advanced study for themselves.

What should state education agencies be encouraged to do?

First, state agencies should provide personnel at the state level to work with programs for the gifted and talented. In addition to increasing state support for such programs, the state education department should search out additional resources from the federal government. Most states have recognized the importance of education for the gifted, but have been overwhelmed, in the allocation of their resources, by more crisis-oriented issues. Four states have been cited in the USOE report for their outstanding programs for the gifted. They are: California, Connecticut, Georgia and Illinois.

Washington *Resources

Treasury of Government Publications

Each month, the presses of the federal government produce hundreds of brochures, manuals, handbooks, leaflets and other documents. Many of these can be useful to members of the school community. They are inexpensive compared to commercial publications, and are usually written by experts--but quite frequently by popular writers.

Listed below are 21 current publications that show the variety of resources available for sale by the Govt. Printing Office. To order, send your check or money order to the Supt. of Documents, Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D.C 20402. Be sure to include the title and catalogue number of the publication. Twenty-five per cent discounts are available for bulk orders (100 or more copies) of a single publication.

Education--Literature of the Profession — HE5.210:10060-A

Bibliography developed by USOE's Educational Materials Center on recent books about education. Published in 1971. (50¢)

Emphasis on Excellence in School Media Programs — HE.220:20123

Presents case studies of eight projects funded under Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Tells why they were developed and how they operate. ($1.75)

Model Programs, Childhood Education Series

HE5.220:201 (43, 30, 37, 55, 40 in order of projects below)

This is a series of five pamphlets on promising approaches in childhood education prepared for the White House Conference on Children and Youth. Included in the series are programs at Charleston, W. Va.; Seattle, Wash.; North Hollywood, Calif.; Dayton, Ohio; Little Rock, Ark.; and Monticello, Fla. (20¢ each)

Planning Educational Change, Volume III: Integrating the Desegregated School — HE5.238:38016

One of several studies prepared to help schools in the process of desegregation. This one discusses the meaning of integration and outlines a six-stage plan for teachers and principals to achieve changes within the school. ($1.00)

How Was the Trip? — HE20.2302:T73

A play about drug abuse. Includes script, directions, discussion and suggestions. (30¢)

Youth Reporters Discuss Problem Drugs — HE21.109:2

A panel of 205 high school students discuss their opinions on drugs, why they think teen-agers use drugs and recommendations on what kind of drug education is needed. (50¢)

A Guide to Drug Abuse Education and Information Materials — HE20.2408:084

Prepared by the National Institute of Mental Health, the guide describes printed and filmed materials, gives sample TV and radio spots, and provides a list of other government publications dealing with drug abuse education. (20¢)

Facts: Smoking and Health — HE20.2602:sm7/4/91

A pamphlet describing the health effects of smoking. Revised September 1971. (15¢)

School-Community Relations and Educational Change — HE5.89.24

Part of the Putting Research into Educational Practice (PREP) series. Includes annotated bibliography. (55¢)

Digest of Educational Statistics, 1970 Edition — HE5.210:10024-70

An abstract of the latest statistical data on education in the United States. ($1.25)

The Constitution of the United States — HE5.210:10014-A

A pocket-size booklet including the Constitution and its amendments. (10¢)

The Declaration of Independence and Its Story — HE5.210:10015

A pocket-size booklet containing the document and a narrative explaining its history and suggestions for study. (10¢)

New Thrust in Vocational Education — HE5.280:80074

Prepared by the National Center for Educational Research and Develop-

Keeping Up...

Here is an easy way to keep up with government publications. Write to the Supt. of Documents, Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for free price lists of documents. The following seven price lists may be of interest to educators:

Home Economics, Price List No.11
Education, Price List No.31
American History, Price List No.50
Political Science, Price List No.54
Child Development, Price List No.71
Consumer Information, Price List No.86

We especially recommend Price List No. 83, Library of Congress, because this leaflet announces many short publications of interest to teachers of nearly every aspect of the curriculum: architecture, music, poetry, history, geography, journalism and science.

ment, the booklet describes projects aimed at developing new, comprehensive programs in vocational education. Printed in 1971. (35¢)

Carl Sandburg LC29.9:V28

This booklet includes a lecture on Sandburg given by Mark Van Doren, an essay by Archibald MacLeish and a bibliography of materials on Sandburg from the Library of Congress. This is one of several publications on poets and poetry from the Library of Congress. (50¢)

Children's Play Areas and Equipment D101.11:5-803-11

Prepared by the Depts. of Army, Navy and Air Force as a guide to facilities for dependents. The booklet includes photographs and architectural sketches of playlots and playgrounds. It establishes criteria and provides guidelines, even to the exact measurements of equipment. (40¢)

Floor Care and Maintenance P.1.31/3:3/2

This booklet, prepared by the Post Office Dept., includes tips for all kinds of flooring used in buildings. It is one of many pamphlets on construction, plumbing, painting and maintenance included in various catalogues. (30¢)

Careers for Women L13.11:30-47

Published by the U.S. Dept. of Labor, this is a series of small pamphlets designed to encourage women to broaden their career outlooks. It includes such topics as optometry, pharmacy and mathematics. (10¢)

Racism in America and How To Combat It CR1.11/2:1

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights publishes many helpful guidelines as well as research studies on civil rights and minority groups. This booklet tells what racism is and gives basic strategies for combating it. (50¢)

Graphic Arts of the Alaskan Eskimo I1.84/4:2

Published by the Indian Arts and Crafts Board of the U.S. Dept. of the Interior, this booklet is profusely illustrated with black and white drawings and photographs of all kinds of Eskimo arts and crafts. The Interior Dept. issues a number of publications about American Indians, including a series of pamphlets on all major tribes. ($1.00)

Questions About the Oceans D203.24:613

This is one of a number of resource materials on weather and the oceans. This booklet was prepared by the National Oceanographic Data Center because of the interest shown by students in an oceanography exhibit at a state science fair. It includes 100 questions about the oceans and is illustrated with line drawings. ($2.00 cloth; 55¢ paper)

Youth Involvement HE17.2:Y8/3

A brief history of youth involvement, including several models utilizing the youth involvement concept. This is one of a series prepared by the Youth Development and Delinquency Prevention Administration to give background and suggestions for prevention of youthful delinquent behavior. (25¢)

Washington *Advisory

Getting More U.S. Surplus for Your Schools

CAPSULE: For nearly a quarter century, the U.S. government has been lending, donating or selling--from two to ten cents on the dollar of original cost--billions of dollars of real estate and movable property. Although many nonprofit groups are also eligible, four-fifths or more of this surplus property has gone to schools and other educational institutions. Are you getting your share? Here's a surplus property primer for those who may not be taking full advantage of this federal education aid program, plus tips that may have been missed by old hands at acquiring surplus property.

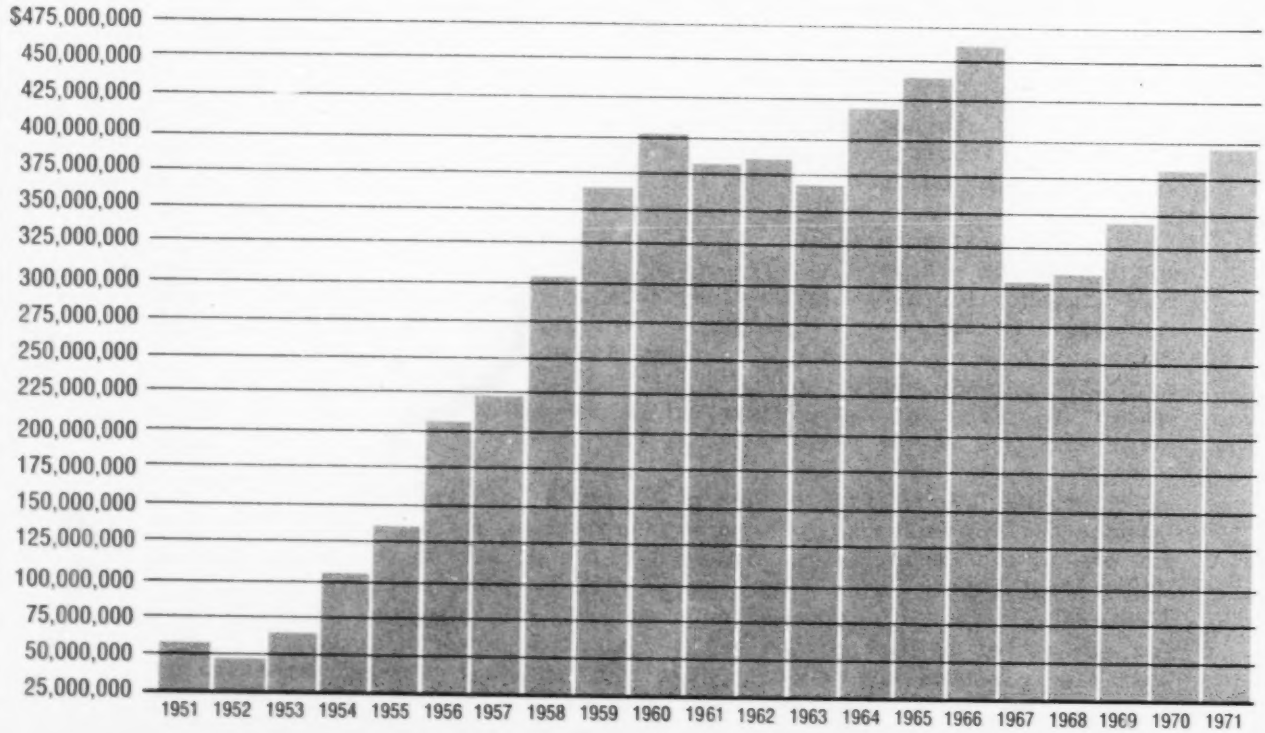
GETTING READY TO SHOP IN U.S. BARGAIN BASEMENTS

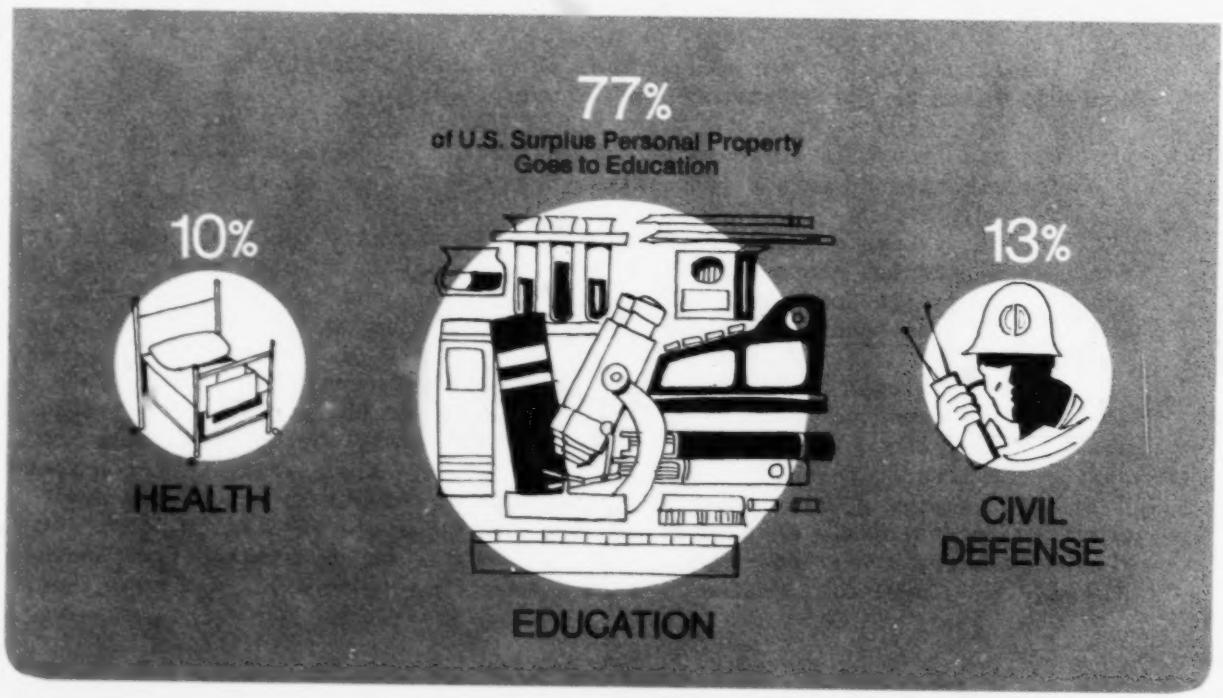
To get your fair share of U.S. surplus items, you will have to learn the ropes, and someone on the staff will have to learn the fine points, fill out the inevitable forms and keep in touch with your state surplus property agency. Is it worth it? Ask the school children in Texas whose four-seat seesaw gets its bounce from a giant spring that once helped get missiles off the ground. Or the science teachers who demonstrate the effects of atmospheric pressure with discarded airplane altimeters. Or the school board of Westerly, R.I., which got some slightly battered desks. After they were refinished by woodshop students, they "looked as good as if one had paid hundreds of dollars for them," says the assistant superintendent.

Every federal agency and installation discards some property from time to time, because it is either outmoded, unneeded or worn out. But nine-tenths of the federal surplus comes from the military forces, a statistic that has special meaning today. Winding down the Viet Nam war and reducing military commitments in Europe and elsewhere means more surplus property for schools. The Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) has assigned staff people to screen warehouses in Germany, Okinawa and Japan. The government's "Home Run" program, which speeds homebound shipments into the surplus property pipeline, has been operating since 1969 and is getting bigger all the time.

Federal property is "excess" (to the needs of the agency owning it) before it becomes "surplus" (available for donation or sale). "Excess" property is offered to other federal agencies first. Manpower training projects, supported by federal funds, have first choice of "excess" property, which is placed on loan and must be returned to Uncle Sam eventually. School systems and other recipients of federal grants may also be eligible for "excess" property if it is available and necessary for the grant project. However,

WHERE UNCLE SAM'S SURPLUS PERSONAL PROPERTY GOES





Source: Department of Health, Education & Welfare

the "excess" property route is often a detour rather than a bypass; the main freeway is the road to "surplus" federal property.

A Word About Real Estate

Real estate can be your biggest bargain in the federal surplus property market, but only if it happens to be in the right place. Surplus federal real property can be a bonanza, true. The buildings at the old Nike site near Marlboro, Md., made a splendid facility for the Edgemeade School for emotionally disturbed children. The offices are now classrooms, the radar center is a library, the underground missile bunker is a gymnasium, and the crew's sleeping quarters are now the student dormitory.

Spectacular acquisitions of this kind are hard to find nowadays, though not impossible. A more likely possibility is acquisition of surplus federal real property for an athletic or outdoor education facility, a camping or conference center, or an ecological demonstration. Use of transferred real estate will be controlled by the terms of your agreement with the U.S. government for up to 30 years, during which you cannot sell, lease or otherwise encumber it. Yet even these restrictions may be relaxed, with the government's prior consent, as the years pass.

Surplus federal real estate may include buildings--houses, hospitals, Quonset huts or barracks. These may be removed for their salvage value, for use in the conversion of other structures, or for reerection elsewhere. These possibilities should be kept in mind by your buildings-and-grounds superintendent and by your vocational education instructor. Except for payment for removal of the property and the cost of a performance bond, it may be possible to secure the property at a 100% discount of fair market value.

Where To Start

The first step, to get either real or personal property, is to make yourself known to your state surplus property agency.

And make yourself known to the other facilities concerned with distribution of surplus property. See p.76 for directory.

School systems normally have no trouble in establishing their eligibility for federal surplus property. "Intermediate school districts" have encountered some problems, but Congress is considering changing the law to clarify this. Educational radio and television stations qualify, as do public libraries.

Surplus federal personal property is allocated among the states. Each state agency compiles "want lists" which are sent to HEW's regional offices. Whether the state gets what it wants depends on first, whether the items are available; second, how much property the state has been getting. States that have been receiving three-fourths or less of the amounts to which they are entitled, on the basis of the nationwide, proportionate allocation, must get their "want lists" filled, even if the surplus has to be obtained from another HEW region. Currently, states have been acquiring between 17% and more than

100% of their entitlements for surplus personal property. How much they get, aside from the question of its release by the federal agency using the property, depends primarily on the length of their "want lists" and that, in turn, depends on you--the school district administrator.

You have to have your own "want list" and keep it current. It's hard to imagine anything you cannot obtain through your state surplus property agency or the other channels described in this report. Uncle Sam offers hand and machine tools, furniture, motor vehicles, electronic equipment, hardware, construction equipment, small boats, aircraft, office machines and textiles of many types. Property is available on a "where is, as is" basis, with no warranty. Items may be new or little used.

It's easy to see how schools can use surplus typewriters, filing cabinets, drafting tables or kitchen equipment. Imagination and ingenuity are needed to realize that outdated photographic paper is ideal for water color work in art classes or that packing crates can become benches for early childhood education classes. Steel bedsteads from an abandoned Army barracks were reassembled to build bleachers for a school stadium in Texas. An Army jeep was converted into a snowplow. The Grove City, Ohio, elementary schools are using a parachute in physical education. The cords were removed and braided into jump ropes. Vocational and science teachers are notably quick to see what use can be made of surplus property. Although your system will have one person authorized to deal with the state agency, arrangements can be made for teachers, too, to visit the state distribution centers and browse.

Surplus Property for Elementary Science

To find what they want amid the mountains of surplus federal property, educators must learn how to translate government catalog terminology into the language of the classroom. For example:

If You Need...	Look for...
Lenses, magnifying	Broken projectors, telescopic sights.
Lenses, ultraviolet	Welding goggles or shields, spare parts.
Prisms	Spare parts kits for tank periscopes, bore-sighting equipment, range-finders.
Compasses	Spare life raft and small boat equipment.
Meters	Repair and spare part kits for communications equipment.
Glassware	Hospital supplies and spares.

Dealing with Your State Agency

The closer your contacts with your state surplus property agency, the more property you will obtain. The state agency periodically sends to federal officials lists of uncommon items it is seeking; these lists are compiled from requests made by school officials. Obviously, the more thoroughly you make your needs known to the state agency, the more likely you are to get that you want.

Each state maintains at least one warehouse for its surplus property inventory. Items move in and out fast, and unpredictably, so that it sometimes is not practicable to circulate lists of what's in stock. Therefore, someone on your staff should visit the state agency warehouse at frequent intervals to see what's available and to determine its condition. There's no substitute for "kicking the tires." One school surplus property specialist found an inoperative $960 calculator at his state's warehouse. After a few telephone calls, he learned he could get it repaired, with a year's guarantee, for $300, so he filled out the forms and carried it away with him. State warehouses have regular "visiting hours" or are open by appointment. Their staffs can give valuable advice about using or converting surplus equipment for school, office or classroom use.

State agencies operate on a self-supporting basis, so you will probably have to pay a small service charge to cover packing, handling, transportation and overhead expenses. When you acquire federal surplus property in this way, you will have to certify that you will cover shipping and handling costs and abide by state and federal terms, conditions and restrictions. State requirements vary widely. For property with a single-item acquisition cost of $2,500 or more, federal regulations...

- require use within 12 months
- prohibit sale, cannibalization, disassembly or other disposal for four years (two years for motor vehicles) without HEW's approval
- may call for reports on the property
- say what happens when the property is no longer needed or usable
- delineate the liability in the event of a breach of regulations.

Avoiding the Middle Man

Federal agencies are authorized to dispose of "nonreportable" property directly, without reporting it through the normal channels that lead directly to your state surplus property agency. This may be property of low dollar value or in poor condition. A wrecked vehicle, on the other hand, may be just what your auto mechanics class can use this semester, and surplus of this kind is normally nonreportable. The point for schoolmen to keep in mind is that most useful items are nonreportable and may not get into the usual surplus property pipeline. The state agency may have to locate such "goodies" at the military mistallation. You may have to locate such surplus items yourself.

This kind of surplus, if not claimed in the donation program, is sold, either by the installation where it is generated, by the Defense Dept. or by the General Services Administration (GSA) for the civilian agencies. State and local government agencies, including school systems, can buy this surplus property by negotiated sale. If none show up to negotiate, the surplus is put up for sale on a competitive basis in one of three ways:

- Sealed Bid--An Invitation for Bid is mailed to prospective buyers, which may include school systems. Offers go back by mail and the high bidder is notified as soon as possible.

- Spot Bid--A written bid is submitted while the sale is in progress.

- Public Auction--Traditional commercial methods are followed.

As items become available for sale, GSA may send a catalog or other announcement to its mailing list of prospective buyers. These lists are categorized, so if you want both vehicles and office equipment, you will have to place your name on two lists. What's more, each of GSA's ten regional offices maintains its own lists and runs its own sales. To get on the proper GSA lists, however, you should write your regional office of GSA.

The Defense Dept. disposes of its surplus in virtually the same manner as GSA. State or local government agencies, including school systems, can get specific items through negotiated sales, but once surplus property has been cataloged for a competitive bid sale and offered to the public, it will not be withdrawn for negotiated sale. Local education agencies and other government bodies can, of course, bid for the property competitively along with everyone else. To get on the military surplus property disposal lists, write your nearest Defense Surplus Sales Office.

Certain military installations also conduct retail sales at fixed prices. Local auctions and spot bid sales are also held frequently at military posts, air bases and naval installations. To be advised of these opportunities in your area, get in touch with the appropriate Defense Surplus Sales Office. It's worth doing. The Pascagoula, Miss., schools got a dilapidated bus from nearby Keesler Air Force Base. After the high school vocational students installed new seats, a new floor, heaters, wiring and other improvements, the elementary school children had a bus for field trips.

The federal government's housekeeper, GSA, operates more than 60 self-service stores where government workers "buy" their office supplies and other items with purchase orders from their agencies. Federal agencies can also get equipment and supplies from GSA warehouses or directly from manufacturers under contract as government suppliers. Because Uncle Sam is a quantity buyer--biggest in the land for most items--and GSA's overhead costs are covered by congressional appropriations, prices are low in these little-known "discount stores." Felt-tip pens sell for half their usual retail price, for example, and color transparencies for overhead projectors are available at two-thirds the usual price.

Agencies and institutions receiving federal grants used to shop at GSA stores. Many school systems--in Georgia, for instance, and elsewhere--took

advantage of this unpublicized opportunity. Recently, however, the President's Office of Management and Budget (OMB) ordered a ban on sales to government grantees or contractors. Through their trade associations, businessmen had protested GSA's "open door" policy. The agency conceded that it had no way of assuring that supplies bought by federal grantees would be used solely for the grant-supported project, as required by law.

Some Congressmen have objected to the OMB action, which prevents GSA from allowing any new customers into its sales outlets and may in time bar grantees that have been buying until now. GSA's proposed new regulations may be liberalized as a result of these pressures. Schools that have been buying from GSA should continue doing so as long as it is legal; others should try to shop at these "discount stores" if they can. Either way, purchasing agents should keep an eye on the situation.

Washington *Resources

Treasury of Government Films

The federal government has a vast storehouse of information, training aids, art, history and social comment--all on film and tape. Until a few years ago this resource was almost inaccessible to schools because few knew what materials were available or how to obtain them.

With the establishment of the National Audiovisual Center in 1969, information about audiovisual materials became centralized, providing opportunities for teachers and administrators to use the enormous federal resources.

The National Audiovisual Center materials are for sale, and 16mm prints can be rented. The Center suggests that users purchase prints of frequently needed films, and the most recent rental charge can be applied towards a purchase price.

The National Audiovisual Center maintains catalogues of its motion picture and filmstrip collection. Periodic lists are issued on newly acquired films. Filmstrips, slide sets, TV "spots" and audio tapes are not for rent.

Rental prices shown for the selected titles below are for three-day periods and include shipment costs within the United States. Users will be charged for airmail costs to Hawaii, Alaska and Canada. Films may be ordered from a month to a year in advance; order processing usually takes from 30 to 45 days. The mailing address is National Audiovisual Center, Washington, D.C. 20409. Phone: 301/440-7753.

These films were selected for their timeliness and their interest to teachers, students and administrators:

How Airplanes Fly: Shows what makes an airplane get off the ground and stay aloft. Combines animation and live sequences to explain basic aerodynamics for general aviation pilots and high school science students. Describes forces of lift, weight, thrust and drag in relation to flight. (18 min., 16mm, sound, color; order no. FA-0703, sale only, $76.)

Anatomy of a Triumph: Documents man's attempts to fly--from the Wright Brothers' Kitty Hawk flight to the Apollo 11 walk on the moon. (30 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $153.50, rental $12.50.)

Robert Frost: Shows Robert Frost reading his poems at his New England home. (28 min., 16mm, color; sale $113.50, rental $12.50.)

Art Scene U.S.A.: A look at the painters, sculptors and dancers of the 1960s in this country, including Wyeth, Warhol, Johns, Lichtenstein, Motherwell, Calder, Martha Graham and the Alwin Nikolais Dancers. Uses minimum narration, emphasizes variety and creativity. (17 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $70.25, rental $10.)

Project on Interpreting Mathematics Education Research: A series of five films prepared by the Center for Cooperative Research with Schools through a grant to Pennsylvania State U. The films are "Using a Mathematics Laboratory Approach" (15 min.); "Using Diagnosis in a Mathematics Classroom" (15 min.); "Operations with Whole Numbers" (22 min.); "Practicing Mathematical Skills" (18 min.); "Solving Verbal Problems in Mathematics" (21 min.). The series price is $380. Individual film prices vary; rental fee is $10 for each.

Ode to Joy: Shows that the development of rhythm and appreciation for music is natural and progressive. Shows children playing percussion instruments, attending live concerts, opera and ballet. Also shows them participating in school music groups. Alternates between scenes of children taking part in activities and scenes relating the music to their total environment. (28 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $113.50, rental $12.50.)

Early Recognition of Learning Disabilities: Shows the daily activities of children in kindergarten and primary grades in two California communities and how children with learning disabilities can be identified. Interviews with parents, teachers and children emphasize the urgent need to recognize and accept learning disabilities early and provide special help for these children. (30 min., 16mm, sound, color; order no. M-1890-X, sale $119.50.)

Eight-MM Film, Its Emerging Role in Education: Explores the educational potential of 8mm film. Presents a sampling of activities. Covers both current state and future promise of the role of 8mm film in education. (28 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $94.50, rental $12.50.)

Programmed Instruction, the Teacher's Role: A series of five short films designed to stimulate teacher discussion of the various uses of programmed instruction in teaching first grade reading (10 min.); third-grade science (11 min.); fourth-grade vocabulary (13 min.); fifth-grade geography (10 min.): eighth-grade math (10 min.). (Each film sells for $21, rents for $5.)

Teams for Learning: A series of eight films to assist the teacher or teacher aide teams so that schools may more effectively meet the student's individual learning needs. The films are "Teams for Learning" (27 min.); "Various Perceptions of Auxiliaries at Work" (15 min.); "I Am a Teacher Aide" (13 min.); "Team Analysis and Planning" (17 min.); "The Adult as Enabler" (17 min.); "Home-School Interaction" (10 min.); "Some Glimpses of Anthony" (10 min.); and "Career Development" (7 min.). (Series sells for $220.75. Indiviuual film sale prices and rentals vary.)

Preparing for Tomorrow's World: Examines career possibilities for high school science students in the field of nuclear science. (26 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $105.75.)

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Where There Is Hope: Points out that help is available for retarded children from both private and government agencies (note: this was made before new federal legislation established the USOE Bureau for the Handicapped). Shows the facilities of the John F. Kennedy Institute. (20 min., 16mm, color; sale $82.)

Man in Sports: An imaginative treatment of the still photographic exhibit "Man in Sports." Emphasizes the importance of sports as a common denominator among people. (8 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $150.)

The Atom--Year of Purpose: Describes 17 major developments in the peaceful uses of the atom, including nuclear power stations, agro-industrial uses, work on atom smashers. (29 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $150.)

Exploration at Boulder: Describes the work of the National Bureau of Standards at its Boulder, Colo., Laboratories, an important center for new knowledge in the fields of science and technology. (20 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $82.)

The American Island: Shows one of America's last unspoiled resources, our islands. Indicates how intelligent planning for use provides a variety of recreational activities and protects this environment. Covers islands from Maine to California. (29 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $117.50, rental $12.50.)

So Little Time: Shows the need for preserving our wildlife by presenting intimate close-ups of birds and mammals in their natural environment. Describes environmental factors contributing to the decline in waterfowl and other birdlife. Shows animals in moments of peril. (28 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $113.50.)

Man in the Sea: Shows oceanographic work being done by the United States. Includes scenes of a sea laboratory. (30 min., 16mm, sound, black and white; sale $62.50, rental $10.)

Apollo 13--Houston, We've Got a Problem: Tells how the Apollo 13 astronauts returned safely to earth after an explosion severely damaged their service module. Emphasizes the teamwork among the astronauts. Features on-board photography. (29 min., 16mm, sound, solor; sale $137.)

Celebrations: Shows celebrations which are retained from the "old country" by Americans of diverse ethnic and national origins. Includes the feast of San Gennaro, the Chinese New Year, Zuni Indian dances, the Mexican pinata festival and an Italian-American wedding. (19 min., 16mm, sound, color; sale $78, rental $10.)

The Feast: Shows how an alliance is formed between hostile Yanomamo Indian villages through feasting, trading, dancing and chanting. Recounts in detail the feast and its preparation by using only sights and sounds of the events. (29 min., 16mm, color; sale $90, rental $12.50.)

Anything for Kicks: Portrays the plight and eventual fate of a teenage couple who became addicted to heroin. Based on the actual words and ex-

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